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ABSTRACT

After the 14th UNESCO General Conference approved a book development program, meetings were held in the developing world between 1966 and 1972 to find ways to promote book distribution and production. A result of these studies was this book, which includes: (1) discussion on book hunger, production, future trends, distribution, copyright, and reading habits; and (2) "Charter of the Book," a statement of policy beginning with "Everyone has the right to read," establishing the necessity for books, writing, the publishing and bookselling industry, libraries, documentation, book distribution, and ending with "Books serve international understanding and peaceful cooperation." (LS)

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Edited by Ronald Barker and Robert Escarpit

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the book hunger

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The book *hunger*

Edited by
Ronald Barker and
Robert Escarpit

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Preface

Two-thirds of the men, women and children in the world today are handicapped in their search for a better and fuller life by lack of one of the essential tools of progress: books and reading material. Efforts to learn, to acquire a greater understanding of scientific and technical developments and to appreciate the contributions of culture depend in large measure on the availability of printed matter.

In Asia, Africa, Latin America and the Arab States, in varying degrees, there is an acute shortage of books. Low production, inadequate distribution channels and the high cost of importing sufficient numbers of books combine to deprive the public of the reading materials they need. Only one title out of every five produced today originates in a developing country. Of the more than 500,000 titles which are issued every year—a new book a minute—80 per cent come from the countries of Europe, plus Japan, the Soviet Union and the United States.

Even in the developed countries, reading is far less widespread than might be expected in view of the booming production of books. In a period of an information explosion, books face the rising competition of the newer electronic media of mass communication. Yet the book remains the simplest and most effective means for the transfer of knowledge.

Since its establishment, Unesco has consistently concerned itself with the world of the book as it affects the fields of education, science, and culture. At its thirteenth session, Unesco's General

Conference stressed the importance of books as a means of promoting the Organization's objectives. At its fourteenth session, it approved a long-term programme for book development which resulted in the convening of a series of regional meetings between the years 1966 and 1972 in the developing world which were designed to promote the production and distribution of books. These meetings demonstrate that there is a desire for a new effort to make more effective application of books for education and economic and social development.

The present book, exploring the causes of book hunger and the solutions that are available, draws upon previous studies and the conclusions of the expert meetings. Edited by Ronald Barker, Secretary of the Publishers' Association of the United Kingdom, and by Professor Robert Escarpit of the University of Bordeaux, it was written under their supervision and expresses views which are not necessarily those of Unesco. Inevitably in the light of their respective experiences, certain subjects tended to fall more particularly to one or the other editor. Thus, Mr Barker, the author of *Books for All*, published by Unesco in 1956, assumed special responsibility for the sections on copyright, production and distribution, while Professor Escarpit, author of *The Book Revolution*, published by Unesco in 1966, was more concerned with the needs of the developing nations, the role of the author and the reading habit.

Mr Barker and Professor Escarpit undertook this project as part of a general reassessment of the present situation of books stimulated by the proclamation by Unesco of 1972 as International Book Year. Under the slogan 'Books for All', International Book Year was given four main themes: encouragement of authorship and translation with due regard to copyright; production and distribution of books, including the development of libraries; promotion of the reading habit; and books in the service of education, international understanding and peaceful co-operation.

It is hoped that this publication, which brings to each of these themes the considered opinions of experts, may result in a wider understanding of the role of books today, particularly in developing countries which have such need for national production and distribution. It may, therefore, contribute to an easing of the still prevalent book hunger in the world.

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Editor's acknowledgements

This book which, in International Book Year, is the result of contributions by many hands and the accumulation of knowledge from many lands endeavours, as the Preface indicates, to highlight the problem of 'book hunger'—the burning need for books in developing countries that strive for increased literacy and through it for advancement in science and technology, as well as the need to maintain lifetime reading habits—essential to universal cultural advancement in developed and developing countries alike.

While Professor Escarpit and I have both written parts of this book, we both acknowledge that in our writing and joint editing we have been greatly assisted by the co-operation and assistance of others who have specialized in the various fields of our investigation. Those involved are too numerous to list (except as we do by occasional direct references to their works in this book), but in this English-language edition I should like to express personal thanks to Reg Gowers, Director of the United Kingdom Book Development Council, for his help on the chapters concerned with book distribution, and to Peter Barnard, a specialist in printing and book production techniques in developing countries, for his contributions in this highly technical area.

To these two, and to the many others necessarily unnamed, I wish to record my deep gratitude. Those unnamed will, I hope, nevertheless recognize their effect on my thinking over the years, making me aware of the needs of developing and developed countries alike, and pointing the ways towards the needed solutions, and will understand the depth of my gratitude.

There is, fortunately, a large number of book-knowledgeable people, throughout the world, who willingly give their services to the abatement of the book hunger, and that I name only two of them in this brief acknowledgement—two who were of particular help to me in my part in the writing and editing of this book—will merely serve to underline the impossibility of naming them all. For their name is legion—and that gives the greatest hope for the rapid end of the hunger for books, the greatest endorsement of my personal faith that this can, with the practical participation of all who are truly concerned, be achieved in the next decade—or sooner, if we put our minds to it.

June 1972 R.E.B.

CHAPTER 1

The book hunger

In 1971, world book production amounted to some 500,000 titles a year. In terms of volumes this means from 7,000 to 8,000 million copies. The annual growth rate in recent years has been about 4 per cent for titles and 6 per cent for printing runs. Between 1950 and 1970, world production of titles doubled and the production of copies trebled. In the same period, taking account of adults who became literate and children who attended school, the world's reading population more than doubled.

These figures show that individual consumption of reading matter increased. It is thus possible to say with some confidence that books are holding their own even in an era of mass communication. But why, in the face of these figures of tremendous book production, should we be talking of a book hunger? Mainly because, as this book will show, the spread is uneven and the demand insatiable.

Books and the mass media

It is undeniable that audio-visual communication media have satisfied a demand which has been latent for several generations and that they are currently in the throes of a vigorous expansion. It would be misleading to compare this 'take-off' expansion with the current expansion of printed communication, which, in a large part of the world, has long held pride of place. Moreover, in the most highly developed countries, the rate of expansion, first of radio broadcasting and then of television, is showing a tendency to level off to that of books.[1]

The book, which has been in existence for more than 4,000 years, is a wonderful means of communication in which messages are coded and can be reproduced, multiplied, moved, retrieved and decoded by any individual who has the key to the code: in other words, who can read.

Over the centuries, efforts to perfect books have dealt with the form of the thing itself: scroll, folio or pamphlet; with its material: papyrus, parchment or paper; or with the process of reproduction: hand copying, hand printing, mechanical printing, offset, etc. In the nineteenth century, the point was reached, with books published in large editions and with newspapers, when a communications network had been established which satisfied the needs of industrial society.

This, of course, had its counterpart. For the machine to work, the 'decoding' technique had to be popularized. All over the world, the movement towards mass literacy went hand in hand with the development of books and newspapers. This was a vital necessity so that the social mechanism could have the information circuits indispensable to its smooth running. The progress of education, compulsory schooling and literacy, for example, created new needs. At the beginning of the twentieth century, practically all the developed world's communications were channelled through books and newspapers.

At this stage, saturation was reached. This was due to the ponderousness of the machinery for distribution among a public continually on the increase, and also to the relative slowness of the 'coding' and 'decoding' process in a world where it was becoming essential to save time. The printed communications system, progressively saturated in the first half of the twentieth century, began to fail, bringing about a general crisis in the newspaper world and publishing.

Simultaneously audio-visual means of communication made their appearance. Quickly they took over a large share of the responsibilities which the written word had been carrying and which it was no longer able to shoulder. This relief was effective in the first place because it made it possible to grasp an event immediately, whether the happening was fact or fiction. Newspapers were more directly affected by this than books, simply because events are the domain of newspapers. Finding themselves freed from the concern of covering topical events as closely as possible, newspapers sought a new balance with radio and television broadcasting either by providing considered comments or by comparative news presentation.

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[1] In 1967, the increase in the number of television sets was of the order of 5 per cent in the United States of America and 4 per cent in the United Kingdom.

Where books were concerned, the consequences were slower to show themselves. They were also more complex. So far as the contents go, it is likely, for example, that coming years may see a certain regression or at least, a change in fictional literature. This is no doubt because informative literature, such as essays, reporting, histories and works of popularization, better satisfies the needs of a public whose horizons have suddenly expanded. There are no limits to the questions which radio and television can ask but it is more difficult for them to provide the constituents of an answer. In any case, the pressing problem facing books is how to keep up with information which is proliferating, obsessional, with a temporary and, by definition, fleeting import. This applies not only to 'information' books but also to fiction, which reflects the living world and even anticipates social and technological changes.

Books have also been transformed in the material sense. A real book revolution was beginning in the years immediately preceding the Second World War, but it has developed especially since 1950, affecting manufacturing techniques and distributing methods and showing itself, more particularly, in the appearance of the paperback. The paperback, which is produced in very large numbers, is sold at a price suited to the purchasing power of the masses and distributed through a network of sales agents which, while including bookshops, has many outlets having little in common with the traditional bookshop.

The mass-audience book has placed within the grasp of countless readers immense treasures of science and culture hitherto denied to them. In addition, the boundaries between the various types of intellectual output have become less marked. The paperback is as much a vehicle for popular fiction as for educational material and as much for the classics as for technical handbooks and research publications, even though paperback prices must necessarily be influenced by the number of copies that can be printed at one time—the popular paperback novel, printed in 100,000 copies, thus naturally being priced much more cheaply than a scientific paperback printed in only 15,000 copies. Nowadays, books can no longer be treated separately from other communications media. In a large variety of ways, such as by the use of colour illustrations, the support of visual or sound material and publication in periodical forms, books are acquiring something of the flexibility of audio-visual media with which they have increasingly closer links. As a general rule, the development of radio broadcasting and especially of television increases readership and creates a demand for books in direct proportion to the size of the audio-visual network.

In fact, what characterizes the audio-visual media of the present time is that the coding and decoding of information is almost entirely automatic and requires only a minimum of initiative when received. The response of the recipient is of only secondary importance to the way the system works, and feedback to the broadcaster exists only in a precarious and marginal fashion, if it exists at all. In addition, the rate of reception and the order of chronological sequences have been fixed once and for all, which makes it difficult to reconstruct the message on arrival and to fit it into an independent system of thought.

This is why it is impossible, when audio-visual media are used for teaching or for artistic transmission, to dispense with the written element such as the report, the commentary, the duplicated lesson or the book. Written communication seems to be an irreplaceable compromise between the demands of dissemination and those of feedback. Even on a large scale, reading is an act corresponding to the act of writing. It cannot be reduced to a simple receiving mechanism. The recipient has to show some initiative and, in this respect, reading is an element of progress.

Books, having lost their former monopoly and having thus been freed from their bonds, have in some respects become the hub of modern communications. It may be necessary however to find a new kind of book.

In countries which have been developed for a long time, people still have an attitude towards books which goes back to the time when they were instruments for the internal communication of a culture of initiation reserved for the reading élite. Through force of circumstances, books have gone down into the market-place, but they will long remain the prisoners of their myths and legends. To some extent, even in the most developed countries, reading books is still regarded as a kind of weak sophistication, indulged in primarily by those incapable of physical labour.

In contrast, countries which began their development during the last few decades do not need to take the 'long way round', which the written word represents, in order to meet the first urgent demands of mass communication. Untrammelled by pre-existing situations, vested interests or established organizations, they can choose, within the limits of their material resources, more advanced solutions than were open to countries which have preceded them along the road to development. However, the more they take the audio-visual 'short cut', the more urgent and immediate will be their need of books, which alone make it possible to consolidate gains and move forward.

Here is where the real problems arise. The developing countries, through their efforts in the provision of schooling and the encouragement of literacy, are preparing people to read books, but they lack the means of producing the needed books. Experience indicates that the development of the audio-visual network in a country depends directly on the growth of that country's gross national product, whereas the impact of economic progress on reading becomes apparent only after a long interval of time and does not make itself fully felt until the reading public has grown large enough to stimulate its own producers.

It follows from this that the position of books in the world shows marked inequalities if considered by regions rather than globally. With an ever-widening need for reading material, we find areas of abundance, areas of scarcity and areas of famine.

Anatomy of scarcity

Statistics available to Unesco in 1969 showed that out of 500,000 or so book titles produced in the world, about 225,000 or 45.4 per cent originated in the countries of Europe, including the United Kingdom but excluding the USSR.[1] This region, however, represented at that time scarcely 13 per cent of the world's population. There is a lack of balance here for which many causes can be found, notably the division of Europe into twenty or so independent literary workshops, its intellectual influence and its high level of development. We can also see in that situation the survival of productive and distributive mechanisms resulting from its former political supremacy.

If these were sufficient explanations, the lack of balance should tend to disappear as the ex-colonial world establishes its cultural and economic independence. But that is not the case. For as long as comparable figures have been available, very little change has been noted in the situation. In 1955, Europe represented 15.2 per cent of world population and produced 46 per cent of the world's books. It has also to be noted that the very slight reduction of 0.6 per cent observed in 1969 concerning European books is not the result of progress made by the new countries but rather the result of the expansion of the book industry in regions which have been developed for a long time.

If we consider the thirty-four countries made up by the countries of Europe, the U.S.S.R., the United States of America, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and Japan, we find that in 1969 they produced 81 per cent of the world's books (i.e. titles) although they represented about 30 per cent of the world's population. This means that all the other countries of the world, or 70 per cent of the population, produced at that time only 19 per cent of the total number of titles.

Although Unesco's statistics for 1969 refer only to eighty-nine book-producing Member States of the Organization (out of 125 Member States and three Associate Members) and although they do not mention certain non-member countries which have a large production, estimates can be made for the various regions of the world and for the world as a whole.

Using figures covering a period of twenty years as a basis, we can get an idea of the shortage which affects more than two-thirds of the human race and see how it came about. It can be calculated

[1] Unesco statistics have a separate section for the U.S.S.R.

that in 1950, Africa, Latin America and Asia (without Japan) contained about 37 per cent of the world's literate adults and 42 per cent of the school population. At that time, these areas were producing 24 per cent of the world's books. Around 1970, they were producing only 19 per cent, as shown above, although they contained about 50 per cent of the literate adults and 63 per cent of the children at school.

A general picture emerges from these facts: one-half of those persons who can read live in areas which produce only one-fifth of the world's reading matter, with all the implications that fact contains regarding the choice of content of books.

This disproportion appears even greater when we consider the size of editions rather than the titles. While data dealing with titles give indications about productivity and intellectual activity, they need complementing by facts about printing runs if we are to appreciate the real nature of the supply available to potential readers.

It turns out that average editions in areas of shortage are, in varying degrees, particularly small in comparison with the average world edition, which seems to be about 15,000 to 16,000 copies per title. This fact emerged from the regional meetings of experts on book development which Unesco organized in Asia, Africa and Latin America between 1966 and 1969. The experts who met in Tokyo in May 1966 put the average edition for Asia at 4,300 copies whilst the experts who met at Accra in February 1968 put the number of copies for Africa at 8,200. The estimate was probably a little low in the first case and a little high in the second. In Latin America, where the shortage is less acute than in the two other regions, the experts who met in Bogotá in September 1969 nevertheless emphasized that editions in the region as a whole were below the world average although that might not apply to some countries in the area.

The average of 15,000 to 16,000 copies, for the world, naturally includes the long-print-run popular paperback which, in a developed country supplying a world market, may be printed in up to 1million copies, and also the short-run book of poems, of which only 1,000 copies may be printed. Since these extreme figures are more likely to be found in developed countries than in developing ones, comparisons of printing numbers on an average basis are probably fair.

Evaluation of needs

The evaluation of needs is a difficult task where books are concerned because the criteria vary with sociological, economic and cultural conditions. It is often found that one country produces a category of books which objective analysis would not show to be essential to that country's life but which particular historical circumstances have favoured.

Developing countries, for example, which badly need technical books, often give more prominence to books dealing with the social sciences than to those dealing with applied sciences, which can be explained by many of these countries having recently become independent. It also happens that, for specific local reasons, religious books are in greater demand than any other category.

Three main sectors can be defined, however, in which needs are undoubtedly urgent whatever the country under consideration. All three are priority sectors and make it possible to define what should be a minimum supply over and above which the variety of situations can express itself in a variety of output.

The first sector comprises educational books including school books, university books and books for use in lifelong education. It is relatively simple to evaluate what is needed in the way of educational books because they belong to a class of publication whose users are to be found within the framework of institutions whose curricula are 'programmed'. In other words, they are set in relation to set numbers of students which are known or capable of demographic forecast.

The importance of the second sector, that of children's books in general, is sometimes underestimated. The great educational importance of children's books has, however, become apparent in recent years. Reading habits are acquired at an early age. Children even use picture books, whose after-effects are lasting, before they learn to read. Great production efforts have been made in various countries but it is a field where needs are difficult to assess.

The third sector, which is the widest and the least well defined, concerns general reading matter for adults. This may mean adults who have reached a high level of education or adults who are newly literate. In both cases the problem is to provide these readers with a steady flow of reading matter which is not necessarily utilitarian or functional. Reading is something which needs constant practice. It would be no use educating people or making them literate unless sufficiently abundant, varied and accessible reading matter were subsequently provided to turn their acquisitions to practical use. Here, too, it is difficult to determine what is needed.

There are statistical indications concerning *educational books*. Their users grow in numbers not only for demographic reasons but also because of progress in each country in making education more general. Educational objectives serve as a yardstick for gauging the extent of the effort to be made, especially in developing countries. In their case, the objectives to be reached were defined at the regional conferences of ministers of education which Unesco called in Asia, Africa, the Arab States and Latin America. Between 1960 and 1980, the primary-school population was expected to increase from 87 million to 242 million pupils in Asia and from 11 million to 33 million in Africa south of the Sahara (excluding South Africa). In Latin America, where it was anticipated that the primary-school population would increase from 21 million to 44 million between 1960 and 1970, it will probably number approximately 65 million in 1980. This means that primary-school textbook needs for these regions alone will have multiplied by 2.8 in twenty years.

In addition, at the regional meetings of experts on book development mentioned above, Unesco worked out certain standards based on the 'book unit', a sixteen-page unit which can be produced in different formats according to requirements. The minimum annual needs of each pupil and of each teacher in the different stages of education were evaluated in numbers of such book units. These estimates relate to the inventory of copies which should be made available to students and teachers in a given year. Taking the average life of an educational book as, for example, three years, dividing the inventory figure by three will, therefore, give the annual consumption figure. It should be noted, however, that school books are in fact often expected to have a much longer life, even in developed countries. United Kingdom expenditure on school books, for example, is based on a seven-year life.

In this rough but incontrovertible way, it can be worked out that, bearing the school populations in mind, the 1969 educational book needs, in respect of copies, rose in the shortage regions to a figure higher than that of the total number of books produced in that year in those regions.

The educational book also has its own requisites as regards production in terms of titles. Should it happen that a single textbook (for teaching children to read, for instance) can meet the needs of a large school population in a unitary, monolingual country, several different titles might still be preferable owing to the various languages of communication, the need to adapt teaching to the environment, and teaching policy.

All the same, belonging as it does to the category of 'directed' publications, the educational book is used in a wider and more homogeneous circle than any other kind of book. Its titles also last longer. Although this has obvious dangers, a single set of school books could, if necessary, meet the educational needs of a whole country or group of countries using the same language. In varying measures, governments frequently take on the production and distribution of school books. In this case, the number of titles is generally smaller than if this were left to private enterprise. There are some encouraging successes in this field but governmental acceptance of this responsibility supposes a costly infrastructure which few developing countries have yet been able to afford, and the improvement of textbooks that comes from full competition often has much to recommend it.

What has been said of school books is even truer of books used for out-of-school education, notably for adult education. In this category, literacy handbooks have a place of their own. As was estimated in 1966 at the Meeting of Experts on Book Production and Distribution in Asia, the number of books needed for implementing existing literacy plans could, over the short term, be almost equal to the number of primary-school textbooks. Furthermore, once achieved, literacy opens up new perspectives and creates new needs in a population for whom the acquisition of new general and professional knowledge is a vital necessity. It is, in fact, with this last kind of book that the most serious efforts have been made in the last few years. In particular, both in Asia and in Africa, emphasis has been given to books intended for the education of farmers but supply is still way below demand.

Children's books have been the subject of major efforts during the last ten years. Japan, for example, which has become a great producer and exporter on a world-wide scale, produces from 4,000 to 5,000 titles per year, and in countries like the Federal Republic of Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States, the production of children's books is very much on the same level as the production of school books.

Children's books, however, present special difficulties for the developing countries. The book has to reconcile the two seemingly contradictory needs of cheapness and yet of being strong and appealing in presentation with a plentiful use of colour. It also demands an extensive educational, artistic, social, industrial and commercial infrastructure both for its production and distribution. If they are to be of sufficiently high quality and effectiveness children's books should often be the subject of multidisciplinary research in which specialized writers and artists in association with psychologists and educators determine the forms of expression best suited for communicating with children. Among the countries which have made the most noticeable effort in this field is the U.S.S.R., particularly through the House of Children's Books in Moscow, started by Maxim Gorky, and India where there is a specialized institution called the Children's Book Trust. On the matter of distribution, experts from all regions of the world were unanimous in recognizing that the fate of children's books is bound up with the existence of a chain of children's libraries and, in a general way, with a youth policy.

Only a rough estimate can be made of requirements in this field. It will be noted that, even with the use of the absolute minimum of one copy of a book per school child per year, the regions of shortage would have needed more than 200 million copies in 1969, far more than were available. In addition, the number of titles must be considerably larger than that of textbook titles, whose uniformity derives from the existence of set curricula. The diversity of demand where children's books are concerned foreshadows the diversity of demand among adults.

General reading matter for adults remain. These should not be thought of as 'literacy' books. It has been found, particularly in some developing countries, that it is books on the social sciences, history, religion or applied sciences which are the most commonly read. Nor should we forget the proliferating mass-production-type literature which furnishes a host of popular novels of all kinds and books presented in every possible way, including the strip cartoon and the photo-novel. It is difficult to leave this literature out of account, for it is reading matter, after all, whatever its quality, but it is equally difficult to define its boundaries.

If, as in the case of children's books, we take the absolute minimum demand in this case as one copy per year per potential reader, we are no doubt getting even closer to reality. It is generally admitted that there are, on average, three to four readers for every book bought by an individual, which is expressed by saying that one book means three to four 'acts of reading'. Even in highly developed countries, three to four acts of reading per year per potential reader is a rate which is surpassed by only a part of the reading population. That would imply, nevertheless, that in 1969, the regions of shortage needed several hundred million books for general reading.

Satisfaction of demand by means of domestic production

The minimum needs referred to above can be satisfied from two sources: domestic production or international exchanges (which will be spoken of later).

Although the extent to which domestic production satisfies these needs can only be evaluated in a very approximate and empirical way, analysis of data available for titles and for copies shows that none of the shortage regions satisfies both kinds of demand to more than 75 per cent. This percentage is about 50 per cent in the countries of Eastern Asia, other than Japan and China, or in the countries of regions like southern Africa and Latin America. It falls below 15 per cent in Central Africa (i.e. Africa between the 20th parallel north and 20th parallel south).

More important than the over-all level is the balance between the percentage of titles and the percentage of copies, since this defines standard situations each of which has its specific problems. Broadly speaking, these situations can be reduced to four:

1. *A lack of balance to the detriment of titles*, where the problem is primarily one of producing enough material to print in order

to feed a publishing apparatus which is developing satisfactorily. This is particularly the case of the countries of Eastern Asia, excluding Japan and China.

2. *A lack of balance to the detriment of copies*, due to the fact that the material production of books is badly organized although there seems to be enough publishable material available. This is the case in South-West Asia and North Africa, for example. Here it is the technical problems of publishing which are dominant, aggravated by a low level of investment and political fragmentation.
3. *An average balanced development*, as in Latin America and Southern Africa, where there can be cautious optimism about production resources. These need only to be used more efficiently and the fundamental problems will then be those of organization; in particular, organization of the market in Latin America.
4. *A balanced but insufficient development*, a situation which prevails with considerable variations from one country to the next, in many countries of southern and South-East Asia on the one hand and of Africa on the other. This situation is reflected, in the first case, by severe shortage, and, in the second, by a real famine. All the problems exist concurrently and with particular acuteness because it is in these regions that the reading public is increasing fastest.

Yet the picture is not wholly discouraging. However rudimentary the preceding analysis may be, it shows where effort ought to be made and corresponds with the conclusions of the regional meetings of experts mentioned above. In varying combinations and with varying priorities according to regions, what is needed is the encouragement of (and hence reward for) intellectual production, the strengthening of the manufacturing side (with the investments which this implies) and the organization of the market.

It should not be forgotten, however, that the estimated demands referred to above represent an absolute minimum. An energetic and co-ordinated policy may manage to make up for lost time so far as school books are concerned, but the omens are less favourable for production as a whole. It seems that programmes of book development throughout the world, and the efforts of countries with a genuine book policy, have in the last few years called a halt to what was a retrograde movement. But if the lost ground is to be regained, there must be a real revolution and it will certainly be difficult to limit it to patchwork improvements or technical adjustments. It will take more than ingenuity to satisfy the immense hunger for reading which afflicts two-thirds of the human race.

The limits to external aid

The countries which are starving for books do not stand alone in the world. International aid and commercial exchanges alleviate to a certain extent the most pressing effects of the shortages we have described. Exports to developing countries represent a large share of the publishing turnover of the principal producing countries such as France, Federal Republic of Germany, Japan, Netherlands, Spain, Switzerland, United Kingdom, United States and the U.S.S.R.

This annual flow of books from the producing countries to the regions which have 'nothing to read' is far from resolving the shortage problem. Moreover, it is very unequally distributed. Distribution is very much conditioned by linguistic barriers, and although most of the big publishing countries currently publish books in foreign languages, these languages seldom coincide with those of the regions which most need help. The number of books in African languages published outside Africa is negligible and are either very specialized scholarly works or elementary textbooks.

Where Asia is concerned, apart from translations published locally under licence from the copyright proprietor, the U.S.S.R. publishes a few dozen titles in the chief languages of this region every year and in the same region, the United States Book Translation Programme has since 1950 been distributing in its turn a very appreciable number of translations of American works. These contributions, even local and foreign productions together, fall far short of the demand. There is not a country in the world which can afford to produce books continuously and regularly in the twenty-five or so Asian languages for which there is a potential reading public comparable in size to that of a European language.

The Meeting of Experts on Book Production and Distribution in Asia, which estimated that the region's production was 128 million copies in 1964, noted that annual imports were of the order of 27 to 37 million copies (or about a quarter of the regional output) and that a large proportion of the imported works, whose total value was something like $20 million, were written in non-Asian languages.

Even more difficult problems are met in the case of Africa, for publication in native languages—except for Arabic and, to a lesser degree, Swahili—is on a very small scale. In all former British and French possessions, English and French remain the dominant publishing languages for use by a good proportion of the reading population of Africa as everyday reading languages. Here, though, it is simply a minority within a minority, limited moreover as a rule to the urban zones. If rural dialects were to be abandoned, as formerly happened in Europe, it could lead to serious cultural damage which Africa has no reason to countenance. Thus many African governments, without dropping the important languages of international communication, are trying to promote local tongues as instruments of culture and lifelong education. In this respect, they can profit from the assistance offered by Unesco to promote African languages. In particular, this action envisages co-operation with specialized African institutes to produce texts of a literary or scientific nature as well as the establishment of an international framework of co-operation which will make it possible to exchange experiences and to perfect methods of book publication and distribution, to establish popular libraries, to publish African literature and to translate the classics of other cultures into African tongues.

Whatever direction African culture takes in the future, it is likely that there will soon be large numbers of people reading African languages. In this sphere, external aid remains extremely limited, whereas it is both excessive and insufficient where European languages are concerned. According to information given at the Meeting of Experts on Book Development in Africa, 75 per cent of books sold in Africa were imported from other continents which, in 1964, represented 24 million copies as against local printing of 7.3 million copies. For 1965, the total value of these book imports was put at $64 million. The fact that, in this way, imports quadruple what is supplied by domestic production is less impressive when it is realized that this production satisfies only 10 per cent of the region's demands for copies. This external contribution is nevertheless an overwhelming one. Its financial burden can scarcely be increased to an extent that would meet the demand. On the other hand, African publishing is not at present able to meet the total need on its own. A large number of the books produced in Africa are at present still produced by foreign publishers.

Latin America represents a special case. This region has long had several very important centres of book production. For the vast majority of countries, the national language spoken and read by all sections of the population is that of a big European producer of books, even though local publishing in Spanish is also very important. The Spanish-language book market is remarkably unified.

In spite of this, the commercial balance is largely in deficit where books are concerned in Latin America. As an exporter, Spain's position is increasing in importance in Latin America alongside that of the United States. Exports of Spanish books, mainly to Latin America, roughly trebled in value between 1960 and 1969. This affects the development of Latin American publishing, in spite of efforts being made to establish a certain reciprocity in the market. Local publishing, perhaps outstandingly in Argentina and Mexico, continues to develop, and even if Spain were to export the whole of its production to Latin America, it would scarcely meet the minimum needs of this region. Brazilian publishing in Portuguese is naturally considerable, and of the highest standard.

International trade and bilateral or multilateral aid can therefore only be palliatives and not remedies for the book shortage. They must be thought of as a form of co-operation and not as an economic and cultural venture the effect of which would in the long run hamper or stifle local production, for that is hardly their intention. In any event their effectiveness can be increased by removing the obstacles they meet. Chief of these are commercial barriers, administrative barriers and the cost of transport. Of the first, lack of foreign currency is clearly the most formidable, especially in Africa and Asia, for even though the cost of book imports is generally only a small part of total import expenditure, foreign currency is in such countries at a premium because of the priorities that have to be given to agricultural machinery, etc. Customs duties and import formalities unfortunately still too often thwart the stated desire of governments to develop the reading habit among their peoples.

The cost of transport is particularly apparent in Latin America where air freight puts up the sale price of books very considerably. Only a series of concerted international efforts either at the subregional level or at the level of the large world organizations can establish common markets for books in which necessary compensations will operate in order to meet the most pressing needs.

These common markets also need potential partners and not simply suppliers and customers. It is by the development of production and co-production in each country that international exchanges must demonstrate their effectiveness.

Urgent measures

Without attempting to set out exhaustively the means by which national production could be established or encouraged, it is perhaps possible to point to a few fields in which immediate effort would enable urgent problems to be remedied.

The first problem is that of material to be published. The most obvious solution, in the face of insufficient local writing, appears to be translation. Its effects are very limited, however, since in titles, it represents only 8 per cent to 9 per cent of world production and the developing countries are far from all being among the most important translators. Translation is expensive under normal market conditions. Bilateral agreements and international conventions such as already exist for copyright may considerably improve the position, in particular so far as school, out-of-school or university books are concerned. This type of book can apparently be more easily prepared at a distance than other types as it meets a more readily definable functional need and follows specifications laid down in a planned set of rules.

This advantage must not be exaggerated, however. Although it is true that algebra or mechanics textbooks can be planned and written on the basis of a very general programme valid for many countries, it is quite difficult in the case of books about knowledge or techniques concerned with the relations between man and his environment, whether this environment is physical, ethnic or social.

In these cases, a parallel preparation becomes vital, enabling feedback from the user to take place. This is particularly true of elementary books used in primary-teaching or adult-literacy courses. Here, problems of language, semantics and conceptualization are added to problems of content. To give just one example, it would be perfectly ridiculous to illustrate reading or elementary arithmetic textbooks for European children, for whom daily contact with the mass media predisposes to an understanding of figurative imagery, in the same way as books for Asian children, whose language based on graphism makes them more adept at understanding abstract patterns, or in the same way as books for African children, who are accustomed to the language of gesture.

This is why it is often thought better to adapt imported material on the spot rather than to rely on straightforward translation. It is a practice which various exporting countries, and in particular the United States of America, as part of their aid programme, are using with a great deal of success. It has the advantage of stimulating or encouraging the efforts of local groups of writers who are able, in their turn, to produce original works.

Any government wishing to develop its book production must aim at encouraging the formation of an 'incubation environment' having close links with the reading public and ensuring that writers shall be sufficiently protected so that their legitimate rights and, in particular, the right to statisfactory remuneration, are guaranteed. It is difficult to strike a balance in this matter since it supposes a very carefully planned book policy in which, in particular, all those concerned play a co-ordinated part. More is said of this in the later chapter on copyright. We will not dwell here either on the material problems of manufacture among which the most obvious are the availability of machinery, the training of qualified staff and, above all, paper supplies. These things, too, are dealt with later. This is an area where international co-operation is most effective. Establishing profitable publishing industries in developing countries demands investments that are often beyond these countries' resources and, even more, beyond the resources of nationals in such countries. The regional book centres in Karachi, Tokyo and Bogotá, working within the framework of Unesco's long-term book-development programme, should assist in producing new techniques for the problem of staff training. Paper is an urgent problem. Book production in Africa and Asia will not really be able to develop unless there is a parallel development in the production of paper for printing. Although there are considerable forest resources in some of the least-favoured regions such as Central Africa, it is difficult to use these resources for paper-making because of the nature of the wood (short fibres), so efforts are also being made to use other products instead of wood to prepare the pulp. This is a problem with which the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) is actively concerned. Likewise, it is from the large international organizations that financial assistance will have to be sought.

On the other hand, every country has the chance of doing something with its own distribution circuits, in the first place by developing its network of libraries. If it is well used, the school, local or village library can become that centre of activity where reading takes on its true character of active participation in the intellectual life of a community. Commercial distribution should need to be further developed in the same spirit. Experience shows that the traditional bookshop as it has long existed in developed countries cannot meet these demands by itself. Such bookshops are not readily suited to the living conditions of regions suffering from shortage. It should not be expected that, developed in other circumstances, they would be. Books must be taken to where the people are who need them, and there is no reason to disregard either peddling or those occasional markets, stalls or bazaars where a great variety of people are to be found among whom the book has old and faithful users and where new ones may also be discovered. This idea has led certain Asian countries to develop or adapt ways of getting large numbers of people to subscribe to editions which it is then possible to plan and distribute at prices in line with the general standard of living. This is the case, for example, with the Home Library Plans in India. More is said later of bookselling problems in developing countries.

Once again, all this implies a book policy. Unesco has never ceased to encourage the formation of national book councils in various countries. These are liaison, information and planning bodies where not only authors, publishers and booksellers meet but also everybody—teachers, heads of administration and communal leaders—whose intention it is that the hunger for reading shall be treated like physical hunger and that books shall be protected, cultivated, improved and developed as the most precious of basic needs.

CHAPTER 2

Book production

Intellectual production

From the author to the publisher to the printer—these are the way stations on the path of book production. In that production process, the role of the publisher is central. Up to a point, and within certain limits, one may compare a publisher to an entrepreneur who obtains the raw material (the text), transforms it into a number of manufactured articles (the books) and distributes them through a commercial market or a network set up for this purpose. The last two of these operations are similar to the equivalent operations in industry, but the first is of a different nature. The intellectual production which is at the basis of any publication is not ruled solely by economic laws. The relationships of publisher and writer are not the same as those of entrepreneur and supplier, in so far as the process of communication from writer to reader is inextricably bound up with the apparatus of communication, the operation of which is controlled by the publisher. The two types of relationships converge when a book, for which the publisher has strict specifications, with a clearly delimited market, is required; they diverge where a literary work is concerned, in which case the initiative lies chiefly with the writer.

The status of writers. The economic status of the writer has never been very brilliant. Even in the most advanced countries, the average remuneration for literary work is lower than for semi-skilled manual labour. In the best of circumstances, a writer receives an advance payment and increasing royalties on sales of his work, he is protected by the law and a writer's association safeguards his interests; but very often he has to be content with making over all or part of the copyright to the publisher for a modest lump sum, and is left defenceless against exploitation.

Such conditions are prevalent in many developing countries, although some of them have strict and effective copyright legislation. They can mainly be ascribed to the economic weakness of the publishing houses, which in turn is due to small print runs and low sales.

This situation tends to reduce imaginative literature to a marginal activity and diverts talents to other modes of expression. This is less of a problem when there is a relatively large and active intelligentsia, but the threat of mediocrity hangs over production in those countries where as yet few individuals are capable of writing.

To this should be added a non-economic factor: in countries where the intellectual élite is of recent creation and in particular in countries which have recently emerged from colonial status, there is a social gulf between the potential writer and the new mass readership. It is often difficult for the intellectual to communicate with the mass of his fellow countrymen, even if they are closely bound by strong emotional, cultural and ideological ties. There is an 'internal exile' which reduces many authors to silence.

These two factors, one economic, the other psychological, account for the 'brain drain' towards places where they are likely to encounter a more sophisticated and a wider audience. This literary exodus may occur within the same linguistic group towards a country with a bigger book industry than the writer's country of origin. This occurs in Latin America in particular. The situation is more serious when talents—or manuscripts—gravitate to a centre outside the region or linguistic group. This is the case in Africa and frequently in Asia. It is specially tempting for a bilingual writer to be published in London or Paris, but in that event it is likely that his work will be entirely wasted on the majority of his fellow countrymen. Some countries are concerned about this loss, but authoritarian measures would not seem to be the answer. The character of writers depends on that of their readers: the abundance and vitality of a country's intellectual production depends on the development of the book industry and the inculcation of reading habits in that country.

This is why there can be no book policy without a policy concerning writers. Experiments in collective authorships have been tried with success in various places. In any case teamwork is the most effective solution when it is a question of producing books with a specific social purpose, such as children's books or textbooks. In this connexion, action by the authorities to bring writers together and facilitate their collaboration and exchanges can be decisive.

As regards literature proper—fiction or, more particularly, poetry—it is worth recalling that many developing countries have strong traditions, both written and oral, which are still very much alive. A systematic inventory of these traditions, ably exploited by writers, could give fresh impetus and new significance to themes, forms and modes of expression which are deeply rooted in the ethnic and national mentality. Neither the literature of the marketplace nor the love of storytellers must be neglected. Modern literatures owe much to the inventions of minstrels and troubadours, to ballads and folk tales.

But this is also the century of audio-visual media. These media obviate the need for the developing countries to follow the same long and arduous road as the industrial countries in order to achieve the economic expansion which provided the technical basis for the cultural development of the masses and which have ended up making literature a solitary art. To the extent that they have preserved the community feeling, those peoples who are now hungering to read should reject this solitude and seek their sustenance in the hurly-burly of their common life. The cinema, radio and television are effective instruments for that purpose.

To attempt by artificial means to create a 'noble' literature similar to those which exist or have existed elsewhere is probably not the best solution for countries where mass culture is developing or is still in the embryonic stage. The problem of reading matter in those countries will not be solved by blind submission to categories which reflect social and economic situations alien to their actual historical circumstances. A prize for literature or a well-written best-seller may establish a writer's reputation in the eyes of an international élite, but does not necessarily add anything to the store on which the mass of his fellow countrymen can draw.

The real trouble is elsewhere, sometimes in the size of a linguistic group, sometimes in a social structure which places a writer on an entirely different plane from that of the potential reader. It can only be settled by a comprehensive cultural policy; in other words by having some definitive policy regarding book production, book distribution and reader education, but such a policy must guard against the temptation to issue directives, particularly in the form of imperatives imported from countries where the situation is completely different.

It should be worked out from an in-depth analysis of the current social and psychological situation; it should seek to integrate the author's work—economically and intellectually—into the system of exchanges of various kinds which constitute the life of a people.

Translation and adaptation. Translation has already been cited as a way of relieving the book shortage. We now have to consider the problems that it involves.

In the first place translation is an extremely limited phenomenon. During recent years it has in fact shown a tendency to decline. The total number of translations throughout the world listed in Unesco's *Index Translationum* represented 9.1 per cent of all book production in 1964; in 1968 it was only 7.1 per cent. These figures provide an extreme example and there may be a 5 to 6 per cent upward or downward variation in the percentage from year to year, but the trend is clear.

Translation is, furthermore, a form of exchange which mainly concerns the developed countries. Reflecting a more or less stable pattern, 72 per cent of translations are of texts published originally in one or another of four languages—English, French, German, Russian—whereas only 3 per cent are from the languages of the developing countries. There are, moreover, very great disparities between the developed countries themselves: in 1968 there were 2,147 translations into Japanese in Japan and only 77 translations from Japanese throughout the world, while there were some 3,000 translations into English in the English-speaking countries and 13,698 translations from English in the rest of the world.

The worst feature is that it is not the countries where the book shortage is severe which are the principal beneficiaries from translations. In 1964, 85 per cent of all translations were made in the thirty-two developed countries which are the main book producers. In 1968, this proportion rose to 92 per cent.

Is is essential to open up the world translation market to books from the developing countries, if only to give them a better profit-making potential and enable agreements to be reached for at least partial compensation in respect of royalties. Copyright is not the only question, however. The status of the translator is another, no less serious problem. Even more poorly remunerated than the writer, the translator is often without the technical training needed for his task, whereas he should be able not merely to understand and assimilate the work he is translating but, in addition, to rewrite it in his native language, a task frequently comparable in effort and difficulty to the initial creative act. In the case of a literary work, the translator needs to be a writer; if an educational, scientific or technical work, he must have the specialized knowledge that will enable him to avoid potentially disastrous errors.

The training of translators is, thus, one of the areas for special effort. Higher educational institutions can give all-important aid here. The setting up of national or regional translation services could, by putting production on a rational basis, enable the translator to enjoy the professional status which he at present lacks.

The work of these services need not, however, be limited to translation; adaptation is also required. For this, close liaison is called for with book users, particularly those concerned with education.

Adaptation does not, incidentally, involve translated works alone. It has been observed in certain countries that translations of the great foreign classics have had considerable success among the public, whereas a country's own classics, published in the original text, have been less successful. In many cases, this occurs because the translator has also brought the work up to date. The language and style of bygone centuries are not always understandable to the contemporary reader, particularly in countries which have recently undergone far-reaching changes affecting not only the social environment but thought and language as well. However barbarous such an operation may appear, adaptation is probably the only way of bringing the mass of readers into direct contact with their country's cultural heritage.

The publisher's role. It can be seen that under these circumstances that the publisher's role is far more than that of a mere entrepreneur exploiting a raw material. He directs intellectual production and, in so far as the conditions in which the author or translator works depend to a large extent on him, is responsible for the quality and quantity of material for publication.

Many publishing houses started out as bookshops or printing works, i.e. their initial concern was the manufacture and distribution of books as saleable articles. They had to create and develop their editorial function after the event. In actual fact, the editorial board is of cardinal importance in a publishing firm. It is at this level that liaison is established with the sources of material for publication.

In the developing countries it often happens that publishing firms have never got beyond the printing shop or bookshop stage. This condemns them to limited operations in relatively small markets, making an over-all policy for intellectual production impossible, which is no good either to the writer or to the reader.

For certain types of functional books for general use, particularly school books, many countries have set up State publishing concerns which are able to carry out efficient planning and survey work. In many cases, they are indispensable for providing the reading matter needed by a rapidly and steadily increasing school population. They function best, however, when the preparation of the material allows a certain latitude for initiative on the teacher's part and for the demands of curricula.

The problem is more complex when we come to literary publications. Each book becomes a separate venture for the publisher. The writer's product corresponds only on a certain number of points, and then only approximately to definable specifications: language, literary genre, length of text and so on. It may, in certain cases, have involved some collective work, but in its final form it is the work of an individual who imposes his own requirements.

One of the first duties of the publisher is, thus, to induce writers to produce works for publication, not as a kind of product whose specifications he lays down in advance, but as so many individual manifestations of the temperaments and talents which are involved in varying degrees in collective intellectual life.

Above all the publisher must be well informed; this is vital both in the case of new books and in that of reprints and, in particular, translations.

With regard to translations, it often happens that a publisher is unaware of the existence of a work which, although exactly what he might be looking for, has been published in some far distant country or in a language with which he is unfamiliar. Here we have one of the areas where national, regional and international co-operation, particularly on annotated bibliographies, might be extremely useful.

Commercial considerations are involved in any decision to publish, and they presuppose that a publisher is able to predict, with some accuracy, a book's chances of being read. For this he needs to be a good critic, capable, certainly of making value judgements but, more important still, of realizing quickly where the interest of the work lies, what it offers, to what public sentiments it responds, how effectively it expresses them. Market studies are frequently disappointing in regard to individual books, for experience in this sector cannot be cumulative, each book being a new product; but at least it is possible to find out which subjects capture the reader's interest, what language is readily understood by him. The reputation, the 'brand image' of a particular writer or a particular series, must also be taken into consideration. Excessive reliance on such criteria, however, can result in the industrialization of literature. In some countries there are veritable book factories mass-producing dozens or even hundreds of novelettes, detective stories and adventure novels all resembling one another. It is still reading matter and has at least the virtue of cheapness; but although it is not to be despised, it is not on this basis that a national literature can be built.

In addition to being organizer, critic and psychologist, the publisher must also be an artist and a technician. It is not enough to decide to publish a manuscript and send it to the printers. The look of the book—paper, format, typeface, cover, illustrations—is again the publisher's responsibility. He has to decide this from his knowledge of the work and of the prospective reader. The layout of a book cannot be left to chance and needs particularly careful attention. Similar care has to be given to revision and preparation of the manuscript and the correcting of proofs. The publisher follows the book through all its production stages, right up to the moment when the last proofs have been passed for the press.

It is obvious that all these skills cannot be invested in one single person and that, in a publishing house, they correspond to a number of specialized posts. These requirements are not always met, particularly in the developing countries, because of the economic weakness of the firms and the lack of trained specialists.

An initial need is, therefore, that publishing should emerge from its 'cottage industry' stage. Book production is an investment which should attract more public and private capital. Although excessive concentration would be undesirable, a book industry consisting of too small units can be an obstacle to intellectual production.

The second and perhaps most important requirement is vocational training for publishing staff. This is a relatively new idea even in the developed countries. Where there is a strong and active intellectual élite and a long tradition of book production this can be improvised, but in places where everything is starting from scratch it requires the introduction of specific measures. The centres for book development in Asia and Latin America set up at Unesco's instigation were wise to give priority attention to this task.

These few remarks give no more than a rough outline of a highly complex situation. It is important to prevent books becoming trapped in the commercial and industrial system. Diderot's shrewd remark that the principles governing a cloth manufactory could not be applied to the publication of books is truer than ever. In the developing countries it is probably the relevant political authorities who alone can correct the sterilizing effect which the law of supply and demand may have in a difficult economic situation.

But we must guard against the temptations of blind *dirigisme*. Books can never be foisted on the public. They respond to a latent hope, need or demand. Whether it is State or private publishing that is involved, it is essential that the prospective reader has his say, by providing him with the opportunity for choice. This implies not merely an educational system in which the accent is laid on self-expression and self-awareness, but an entire range of measures to ensure the participation of the whole mass of readers in creative intellectual life: youth centres, arts centres, cultural groups, book clubs.

The only book that a writer writes or a publisher publishes with any success is one that, unbeknown to himself, the reader has all along been carrying in his head.

Printing

Printing has achieved as many technical advances in the last forty years as it has in the last four hundred. Nevertheless the physical manufacture of reading material has not kept pace in all parts of the world with the rising demands created by the drive against illiteracy, rising educational standards and growing leisure. The result is that, while it is now possible to provide a staple diet for the book hungry, many find it impossible to satisfy their needs.

Unesco defines a 'book' as a 'publication with forty-nine pages or more, not counting covers'. Not all countries accept this definition. In Iran, for example, a book consists of 'any printed material, being bound or to be bound within the importing country'. The Philippine definition is 'a volume, with or without covers, consisting of more than one hundred pages'. Sri Lanka defines a book as 'any number of pages permanently bound between two covers'; this may include pamphlets, booklets and even magazines. The Unesco Agreement on the Importation of Educational, Scientific and Cultural Materials, which exempts books from import duties, does not extend this privilege to printed material in the form of loose sheets, books or otherwise, in unfinished form.

Whatever the disagreement as to what constitutes a 'book', a newspaper, or a magazine, printing in the developing countries *can* contribute to meeting pressing educational needs. The problem is to make maximum use of existing resources. One of the most promising techniques is web-offset printing, a process using reels of paper: in daily newspapers up to six miles of paper in each reel. The actual printing is by lithography, which depends on a greasy ink that will only print where there is an image on the printing plate; water in the system disperses the ink where there is no image.

Surfeit and starvation. If the technical resources of the world's book printing industry are to be mustered to the best advantage, both internationally and on a regional basis, great technical efforts need to be exerted where book production is most limited. To accomplish this, the experiences of the avanced publishing countries are worth studying.

In North America and western Europe, the vast educational and communication programmes of the last ten years have had their impact on the printing industry and have triggered not only an increase in the volumes produced annually, but also new techniques by which they are set, printed and bound. In the last decade, commercial printing has increased in the United States by 90 per cent, newspaper production by 55 per cent, magazine printing by 60 per cent and book manufacturing by 13 per cent. In the developed as well as the developing countries, the resources of lithographic printing have contributed more to the use of colour and illustration in primary textbooks than other technical development to date.

The impact and benefits of lithography can be international. Experts maintain that despite the technical problems in this process (the effects of humidity require conditioning plants and equipment in equatorial countries), the use of colour is possible at a lower cost by the litho process than conventional letterpress, which relies on a raised printing surface for printing texts and—unlike lithography—needs a coated and higher cost paper for illustrations. For the publisher (and editor and author) this can mean more illustrations in a book at lower cost. An important additional benefit in the use of lithography is that only a film master negative or positive is needed to make a complete printing plate. This enables the easy and comparatively low-cost transportation of film weighing only a few ounces, which can be flown to the cheapest available printing point, thus avoiding the high cost of transporting printing metal.

In Western countries, well over half the over-all production is by lithography, and 45 per cent of the total book production in the larger countries is for school and higher educational use.

The growth of paperbacks. The greatest growth area—in printing and publishing—in all parts of the world, is the paperback book. In the United States, over 50 per cent of total production, including school textbooks, are soft-covered now. One-fifth of book exports from the United Kingdom are paperbacks. But, as Unesco studies on books for the developing countries indicate, the benefits of the 'paperback revolution', which has significantly affected book industries elsewhere, have had limited impact on the countries, where low literacy rates combined with low levels of income are major barriers. Even the lowest-cost paperback, subsidized or not, must have restricted sales where the *per capita* income is below $100 per annum.

For the most part, these countries lack the single prerequisite of the publishing industries of the developed countries in consumer terms, that is, a ready-made market. Frequently, there are not sufficient readers for large-scale publishing, normally required for mass production and distribution, let alone a publishing industry with hardback and paperback sales on any scale.

The Unesco study of books for the developing countries notes that, in the six African countries with populations of less than half a million inhabitants, a single publisher might be able to maintain a business only if he were the sole publisher in that country, and it would be a struggling enterprise at that. The printer must gear his resources correspondingly to the economy, and to the demands and conditions which are the outlets for his products.

Plants in the public and private sectors. In the developed countries, a fundamental change in the last thirty years has been the concentration of publishing interests into fewer and fewer hands.

This is equally true of printing. The heavy demand for capital, and the limited return on book printing—which, despite its growth in turnover and volume, still provides among the lowest returns on total investment of any range of printing operations in the world—are factors which have forced book printers, in meeting the changed needs of their publishers, to create larger and more specialized plants.

The largest plants in France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, the United Kingdom, as well as the United States, representing 10 per cent of the companies or groups operating, are responsible for publishing and printing between 70 per cent and 80 per cent of the output in these nations.

Book publishing and printing are industries demanding capital and resources which require the high-cost scientific approach of pilot schemes and complex distribution networks. These have already resulted in a concentration of textbook production in a decreased number of specialized plants capable of providing the services which the new nations rightly demand in their textbook curricula.

All new nations are faced with a critical communication problem. Once a new constitution is created, the demand for printed matter proliferates overnight. New laws, proceedings of government, customs forms, documents and departmental instructions are needed urgently from already hard-pressed government printing offices and local firms.

As part of any programme of self-determination, many believe that school textbooks should have the highest priority for production, under the auspices of government itself, although local conditions often make this difficult if not impossible.

In the smaller countries, it must be recognized that the printing facilities are primarily those of the government printer, but, to quote a Unesco report: 'In unsuitable buildings, and from partly obsolescent machinery, government printers produce a flow of papers and reports required by the government departments.' The shortage of skills at all management levels and limited capital resources make it essential to get the most out of the limited resources within the economy of a new nation.

All levels of management in book printing houses, as well as publishing offices, must be trained to deal with the technological changes in composing methods and printing, as well as binding, which confront the industry. The profitable interaction between photocomposition and offset in some types of newspaper and magazine production has not, as yet, been exploited sufficiently for books. Letterpress, using single type or slug composition and conventional flat-bed machines, will continue to provide practical solutions for this type of book production to the end of the present decade. Web offset requires standardization; filmsetting needs the minimum of corrections and proofs.

The new school books: special problems. School and educational books account for more than half the production in many developed countries. In the United States, for example, school textbooks, reference books and elementary-school books account for 60 per cent of total book production. In the United Kingdom, elementary-school books, and those for university education, amount to 55 per cent.

Since 1960, the total numbers of letterpress machines installed in North America, annually, have decreased by over 50 per cent. The percentage change in sheet-fed offset has shown an increase of 20 per cent, and web-fed installations have increased by over 300 per cent in ten years.

It would be unwise to forecast process changes in developing countries to match these growth figures, but the situation during the last ten years and plans for the plants for the next five are clear enough.

If school paperbacks have a high percentage of illustrations with the text, and textbooks, both at elementary and advanced levels, become more complex in their make-up and nearer to the concept of magazine production as we know it today, there is little reason to doubt that, in the middle seventies, the book printers will have to accelerate the rate of offset press installations, as publishers will have to train more editors to higher technical standards.

Cost factors: primary textbooks. The pressing need for primary textbooks and the potential of limited, if untapped, technical resources and skills for indigenous book production in developing countries would appear to justify the use of intermediate technology. One solution could be increased use of modified newspaper plants with web-offset machines. It is a high-cost process unless printing numbers are large, but in the smaller nations even this can be counted as a factor in favour of the process, since primary textbooks represent the bulk of a new nation's book production, as much as 90 per cent sometimes. The print runs of such textbooks are normally high.

The problem—and its solution—can be illustrated by the example of an African country, Sierra Leone. The country has some 140,000 primary-school pupils, 25,000 in secondary schools and some 2,500 in technical and vocational schools and third-level education.

For primary schools alone, 420,000 volumes are needed. The potential for that manufacture exists, particularly if newspaper presses are used. It would be economically feasible through lithography, experts report, even if print runs per title were only about 3,000 copies. This is so because many of the textbooks, such as first readers and mathematics books, contain a high level of illustrations.

In school books, even where there are no illustrations, lithographic production costs (including plate-making) are competitive with conventional letterpress costs on printing numbers as low as 3,000 copies.

Such comparisons are based on hot-metal conventional typesetting methods. Additional savings can be achieved by greater use of cold-type composition, that is, using typewriters which can provide a limited but similar typography that have the facilities to change the type size, justify the lines and allow for corrections to be stored on magnetic tape. The over-all saving in illustration reproduction can be as high as 50 per cent when compared to conventional letterpress blocks needed for illustrations. The proportion of illustrations is, on average, 25 per cent of the over-all printed area in primary readers in developing countries.

Textbooks produced under the editorship of local authors for primary schools in their own country show the way for opportunities for typesetting overseas for local printing by litho. This has been successfully exploited in Algeria, Nigeria, Ghana and Sierra Leone.

In the fight against illiteracy, the weapons of co-operative printing and publishing between developed and developing nations can be fully utilized. Examples of this can be found between all the major book-producing countries and the developing nations. In France, seven firms produce (publish and print) 70 per cent of the country's books. A new school-book plant of one group prints a high proportion of textbooks in Arabic and French for special curricula in North Africa. Of the 300 main publishers in France, twenty publish in or for developing countries in Africa. Training facilities are supported by the French Government.

The Ministry of Economic Co-operation in Germany assists at government-to-government level with indirect subsidies for university education in low-income countries and subsidizes graphic arts institutions and training centres.

The same is true of many other developed countries. One striking piece of evidence deriving from Unesco's book-development programme is precisely this readiness to provide professional expertise and training.

The British contribution has largely grown out of the pattern of growth of the new nations with which the United Kingdom has been most closely associated in the past.

A co-operative venture with a Nigerian printing group, for example, and a British firm, working with the government, has resulted in the technical back-up for an indigenous publishing industry. From the beginning Nigerian nationals have trained to become managers of local publishing houses and Nigerian writers in English have had works of fiction and scholarship published throughout the world.

Ghana Universities Press, first set up with the assistance from British publishers, is now fully established as a university press in its own right with Ghanaian staff.

Whenever it has been possible to work out such arrangements, indigenous publishing businesses have achieved the first step to expansion to which developing publishing industries have the right.

School books for Jordan. An example of using limited resources to meet urgent needs comes from the Arab States. In 1968 the Jordan Government asked the United Nations to assist them in both the problems of the printing industry and the urgent need to provide enough textbooks for all schools. UNIDO, the United Nations Industrial Development Organization, as an autonomous organization within the United Nations to promote and accelerate industrialization of developing countries, undertook the assignment.

The primary objectives of the UNIDO investigations were, first, to establish the immediate needs, in training and technical resources, to meet both commercial and national requirements, and second, to provide a long-term plan for the industry to meet the educational printing requirements of the nation through to 1975.

A first study showed an alternative to large capital investment for a new State plant, by harnessing and developing the resources of the small resilient private sector of the printing industry.

The Jordan printing industry was rated as the twenty-second industry in the national economy and employed 415 men in thirty-five plants.

War had decimated the book industry and halved the labour force and the number of establishments. National economic conditions, as well as the international situation, had atrophied the ability of many managements to budget and plan ahead.

Quantifying the real demands of educational printing, and relating these to the printing industry, as it existed and as it had to be developed—rapidly, economically and technically—was the real task.

To do this, the school-book requirements for the next five years were broken down into the basic elements of print: characters to be set, sheets to be printed and volumes to be bound. These analyses were made in close co-operation with the Jordan Ministry of Education.

In the previous school year (1968), the Ministry of Education provided 4 million textbooks for primary, preparatory and secondary levels, of which 55 per cent were imported from neighbouring Arab countries and 45 per cent were printed and bound in Jordan.

These figures were used to forecast demand to 1975, taking into account the projected population growth for the next decade. Projected demand was based on the average number of pages in current textbooks for the three educational levels. Actual production had been 2.29 million books. As the books had to be printed in sections of four, eight or sixteen pages, depending on press size, these were re-estimated at 23.34 million sixteen-page, 3.5 million eight-page and 15 million four-page sections.

The school-book demand was then allocated to the production sector, based upon the size of presses of each printing plant. It was then possible to calculate the demand in mechanical equipment to meet the needs of the Ministry of Education with the minimum of capital outlay.

Two methods of manufacturing the school-textbook programmes were considered initially. One was to build a specialized printing plant and printing school, to print and bind the total educational needs of the country; the other, to establish a pilot plant for the Ministry of Education to set, print and bind a percentage of the textbook programme annually, leaving the balance of production to be manufactured in the private sectors of the industry.

Both courses were rejected on the following grounds:

1. The setting up of a State plant would require not only senior and middle management to be recruited from the private sector, but the entire shop-floor labour force as well. The private sector would also be deprived of one of its greatest assets—its scarce skilled operatives and management, as well as the annual revenue from educational production.
2. Both solutions would require substantial capital, either as part of foreign-aid programmes, or from other sources.
3. If management and labour were not to be taken from the private sector, the training and recruitment of expatriate staff would be necessary, which would be uneconomic and, in terms of the industry as a whole, unnecessary.

The use of the management skills, the technical resources, and the capital available in the private sector, were considered as overriding reasons for the development of the existing resources of the printing industry under the guidance of the Ministry of National Economy.

The choice of systems. The decision in the developing countries on the composing system depends on many factors, but two are of prime importance.

Do alphabets have to be set? This has particular urgency for those languages which do not use the Latin alphabet, for which typefaces and supplies exist in profusion, but it is a question that is also being asked in all parts of the world. Second, what volume of illustration is needed in textbooks? On the basis of the answers, a choice can be made whether to print by offset and hot metal (e.g. Monioype and Linotype), or filmsetting.

Filmsetting (or photocomposition) systems use photographic methods to create the text to be printed. As the end product can be either a film negative or positive, the process—once described as providing the editor and printer 'liberation from lead'—is an excellent ally to offset lithography, which also requires negatives or positives.

Many argue that now is the time to lay the foundations for filmsetting, which will probably be used by all developing countries in the next ten years. Photocomposition and the use of perforators are now well established throughout the world, and can be introduced in traditional printing plants without too much dislocation. Experience in hot-metal composition, using conventional keyboards, enables establishments to transfer staff to photocomposition systems with minimal retraining and replace them with trainees from printing schools or their own composing rooms.

It has been widely suggested that textbooks can be composed by drawing upon existing resources of newspapers in areas where the battle with illiteracy is being waged. From a technical point of view, the newspaper plant provides a total printing system. There is a setting subdivision and the newspaper press itself, which provides not only a printing machine but a folding and delivery system of all but the covers of books, booklets and magazines.

The world total of daily newspapers increases steadily. In 1952, there were 7,000 dailies in the world, with a total circulation of 230 million copies; in less than twenty years, the number had increased to 7,680, with a circulation of 365 million. The greatest increase, both in newspapers and readers, has been in Asia, where the number of papers, excluding those in the Soviet Union, rose from 1,500 to 1,960, and their total circulation from 45 million to 75 million copies.

The position now held by daily and weekly newspapers in Asia, Africa, the Caribbean and other developing territories corresponds more closely to that of the West in the first thirty years of this century.

The Asian growth, both in the actual number of newspapers published and copies per 1,000 inhabitants, is in marked contrast to the relatively static position in Africa, and the respective newspaper markets are reflected in equipment installed in all territories.

It has become apparent that composition and filmsetting systems which, by the developed nations' standards, may be obsolescent in the next five years, will be valid in Asia and Africa for twenty years and are justified where there is a shortage of skilled management and capital as well as a need to retain labour-intensive projects.

As newspaper installations grow in the Arab States, Africa, Latin America and Asia, so will the demand for photocompostion systems increase accordingly. Newspapers and magazines create the demand and supply of advanced technology in print, primarily because investment capital is available for large media.

The market in the new countries will increasingly demand printing systems using intermediate technology as a step towards filmsetting for non-Latin-alphabet languages where, ultimately, accents, and a large number of character variations, will give photographic systems a greater economic advantage. Newspaper plants will continue to be the national test beds for these systems.

'In new societies, newspapers are more widely read than books', says a Unesco study. 'Attempts have been made to provide simple newspapers with literacy campaigns.... The simplest form is the wall newspaper. The next step is the weekly or monthly'.

Languages. Typography is the medium by which words are given visible shape and arranged in easily comprehensible order. The languages of the world, and their varying typography, are a challenge to the printing industry.

It has been estimated that twelve main languages are spoken by three-quarters of the total world population. The typographers' problem is not essentially with these major languages since the existence of large groups of potential readers has led to the creation of type to meet their demands, even if certain alphabets or ideographic tongues raise special problems. Where the situation becomes more complicated, however, is when the printer and the publisher are dealing with languages of limited diffusion. It increases when, as in the case of many countries of Africa, there is a multiplicity of languages within the countries themselves.

Nigeria has over two hundred local languages and dialects and Ghana fifty-six. Sierra Leone, with a population of 2 million, has eighteen dialects. Countries with so many local languages will always have great difficulty to print and publish books in all of them.

A Unesco report says Sierra Leone does produce primary readers and other literature in five of its eighteen languages. The Minister of Education in Sierra Leone, in common with many of his colleagues in other developing countries, was quoted as believing in the advantage of a common language to make the best use of what printing facilities are available, which would offer a long-term and realistic solution to eradicating mass illiteracy.

There are many valid reasons for sustaining regional dialects and languages, but, from the book industry's point of view, the evidence of history, and the mass literacy which has come into the developing countries in the wake of technical progress, argue in favour of the minimum number of languages (and therefore, a minimal typography).

The history of the campaign against illiteracy in the U.S.S.R. would indicate this. In the early years of the Soviet régime, illiteracy was described as 'enemy No. 1'. Some 80 per cent of the peoples of the Soviet Union, of both Russian and non-Russian origin, were illiterate; despite this challenge, illiteracy was largely wiped out by 1941. By 1959, the census showed a literacy rate of 98.5 per cent.

Literacy teaching was described as a 'relatively easy job' in areas where Russian was the native language, but almost half the population spoke one of sixty other languages, some of which had no written form. After experiments with Latin alphabets, *all* languages were transcribed into Cyrillic, whether or not they had previously been. It was then found that, with the Cyrillic characters, it was possible to intensify a nation-wide campaign. The gap between educational needs and the technical resources of the printer, at least, was narrowed by the introduction of a single typography.

Arabic studies as a typographic case history. The urgent need to increase the volume of Arabic textbooks has likewise been apparent. The potential additional use of newspaper plants as a short-term method of getting books set cheaply from an existing production source has been outlined. There are limitations, however, on the use of Simplified Arabic, which can be set on a conventional linecasting machine in a newspaper office.

For religious texts in Arabic, as well as school books where there must be the fully vowelled text, Simplified Arabic is not acceptable.

Nevertheless, there is a wide field, particularly in the primary- and secondary-school curricula, where the products of conventional newspaper machines can be and are used for textbooks. It has been estimated that:

1. Of 125 textbooks a child needs for his or her school life in three grades of education, 98 can be set in Simplified Arabic by newspaper composition machines.
2. The traditional Arabic script requires many character variations to show the vowels and pointed groups above and below the main characters. This typography can be created by the single-letter system in a full and effective form. While there are many systems and installations in the Arabic-speaking countries, for every one, there are three or four linecaster installations in newspapers, with trained operators capable of setting texts in Simplified Arabic. In this system, the four letter forms have been designed to reduce the total number of alphabet characters from 104 to 56. All the most frequently used characters, figures and printed letters can be contained in a single 90-channel magazine, used in many newspapers.
3. Composing capital outlay is reduced, the training of the operator is simplified, and his output is increased. Most operators—self-taught or otherwise—can achieve an output of some 6,000 characters per hour. This compares favourably with trained operators setting in the Latin languages in the developed countries.
4. The printing of newspapers anywhere in the world is a daily cycle of several hours, with a peak period shortly before the newspaper goes to press, where maximum setting is needed and, too

> frequently, with old machines and self-taught operators, any additional spare capacity which could be used for setting textbooks becomes marginal.

On the other hand, tape-operated systems using typewriter keyboards to drive high-speed linecasters can and do increase the output where the operator is self-taught and mechanical standards reduce the efficiency of the machine. It is the men that make the methods and even with machines forty years old, a young operator, provided he has the same opportunities and mechanical standards as his colleague in the developed countries, will compare favourably in speed and output with his counterpart anywhere in the world.

Conclusions. All of the foregoing indicates that it is time to take a fresh look at the printing of textbooks. For that purpose, a few hypotheses are useful. For example, products from newspaper presses are finished products from the press itself. Periodical and book products are published products requiring finishing. This includes the processes of folding the sheets, gathering the folded sections, sewing them together and binding them in paper covers or boards.

Web offset for book production is generally accepted in the developed countries now, but as a high-cost investment system, with custom-built presses.

The potential for the utilization of newspaper presses for low-cost textbooks, particularly where colour is needed, is now being increasingly accepted in the developing countries.

In the last thirty years, technical changes have taken place in the regional newspaper industries of the world. It is the short-run papers that have benefited by the introduction of web offset, the use of photocomposition and, more recently, the development of computer systems for assisting the typesetting cycle.

The hard economic facts are universal. To benefit from web offset and other technical changes, total production changes are needed, and the investment required in a large newspaper—to put in new presses and composing systems, and to make the necessary changes in ancillary equipment—is high. But for less than half as much, the small plant, planning an installation from scratch, can provide web-offset units, together with the composition machines required. This kind of budget is now as readily available to the newspaper proprietor in central Africa as to his counterpart in central Europe.

Well over half the increase in the Asian newspapers established between 1952 and 1964 was in web offset, and some 80 per cent of the press units now on order in Asia, Africa and South America will print by web offset.

Paper

It is all very well to talk about printing the works of an author, but a basic question still has to be answered. On what material will it be printed? The present answer, except for a few exotic exceptions, is paper, and this has been so virtually since the invention of printing.

As the Food and Agriculture Organization has pointed out, the most important raw material for paper-making—wool fibre, or fibre of various agricultural residues—is almost ubiquitous. Nearly every country with only a small indigenous pulp and paper industry, or without any industry at all, is endeavouring to develop one, based on locally available fibre, in order to avoid a rapidly rising import bill or finding its industrial and cultural programmes held up for lack of paper.

'But fibre alone is not enough,' FAO declares. 'Other important materials are needed: chemicals, water, power. Capital needs are heavy, and the economies of scale being considerable, care must be taken not to establish industries on such a small scale that high production costs require permanent, high protection; nothing inhibits further expansion more effectively.'

FAO has played a leading part in helping countries to appreciate and master the problems involved in expanding their pulp and paper industries through studies, the dissemination of technical and economic information, consultations and by means of direct technical assistance. In this programme the organization has co-operated closely with several other international agencies and in particular with the regional economic commissions of the United Nations and with Unesco.

On a global scale, there is no real paper problem, since production still outdistances demand. All indications are that this situation will continue. For very many countries of the world, and in particular for the developing regions, however, there is an acute shortage.

This seeming paradox can be explained by problems of distribution of supplies. The developing countries, for the most part, must import their paper. Even countries with large forest reserves are not necessarily in a position to use those fibres to meet their paper and pulp needs.

Ninety per cent of all the pulp that goes into paper manufacture comes from conifer trees. There are two reasons for this: (a) the prevalence of coniferous resources in the industrialized regions, which account for the preponderant share of the world's consumption and output of paper; and (b) the present technical advantages of the long fibres of conifers over the shorter fibres of other trees and agricultural residues.

Researchers are working to find ways to avoid the disadvantages of short fibres. Rapid progress has already been made also on an industrial scale. In fact, it seems probable that most of the important fibrous raw-material resources, including the vast tropical forests of the world, could be successfully processed, if the will and the money were available.

On a regional basis, FAO estimates that the situation is as follows (taking account of the fact that the organization's statistics cover not only paper for printing, but also for wrapping, cardboard, newsprint and industrial uses). In North America, it seems likely that, at least until the year 2000, adequate paper supplies exist not only for domestic needs but also for export. Western Europe may be approaching a period of equilibrium between demand and supply.

Latin America has abundant potential raw material resources for pulping. Apart from the natural coniferous forests in Brazil, Central America and Mexico, there are also existing pine plantations in Chile, Argentina and Uruguay. The short-fibred raw-material resources of the region are practically unlimited, particularly eucalypts, poplar-willows and sugar-cane bagasse.

The same situation holds true for central and southern Africa, with their vast tropical forests and land suitable for plantations of both broad-leaved species and conifers. In North Africa, however, the only potential paper resources of any importance are esparto grass, sugar-cane bagasse and some eucalypt plantations. There may also be made available some rice, straw and cotton stalks, but these supplies will probably never become important.

In the Near and Middle East, problems will arise in meeting growing needs of raw materials for pulping. Among potential resources are reeds, eucalypt and poplars, but it is likely that the countries involved will have to depend largely on imported paper.

The Far East has been taking giant steps towards meeting its needs through local production, held back only by limits on capital investment funds. In India, where bamboo is at present the main raw material for pulping, some potential resources may *still* be developed but they are probably insufficient to cover growing needs for more than a limited period. Bagasse will undoubtedly become an increasingly important raw material.

The problem of satisfying the growing needs for pulping materials in Oceania does not seem difficult. Pine and eucalypt resources could easily be increased as needed.

The U.S.S.R. has the world's largest untapped resources of coniferous forests and output from them could cover any foreseeable future needs of the region. Once opened up, they may also become an important source for exports to other regions.

Eastern Europe's paper demands are outstripping resources. Increasing reliance will be needed on non-wood raw materials, such as reeds and straw, as well as rising imports.

China has made impressive progress in the field of forestry, and the long-term outlook for the fibrous raw material supply is good. Since wood is also used in construction and as fuel, great emphasis is laid on the use of non-wood fibres such as reeds, straw and bamboo.

CHAPTER 3

Future trends

The book-printing industries of the world manufacture the bulk of publishers' products: textbooks and scientific publications, as well as slower-selling books. The reading populations in developed countries—adults and children alike—are subject to an enormous output, not only of the mass media of newspapers and journals, but also of the growing quantity of information books, blurring the demarcation between books and journals reporting living history.

It is normal that the industry should speculate on the likely impact of audio-visual aids and information-retrieval systems on education and be concerned with the effect of one medium in the graphic field on another and its related technical development.

The printing and publishing infrastructures of the world make it possible to have books of immediate world-wide interest available in a dozen languages within five weeks of original publication. Most books, though, are much more local in conception, production and distribution, and much slower of realization.

The emphasis on local production arises from practical needs. Mathematics can be taught basically the same way in many parts of the world; hence the acceptance of photocomposed elementary mathematics for international or regional markets. But, in teaching history or geography (apart from language problems), local interests and interpretations are involved, requiring local teachers in partnership with the author to produce texts.

Few of those working within the communication complexes—

in education, in printing or other media—have any doubt that the individual country must, wherever possible, have its own industry.

John Brown, a former President of the United Kingdom Publishers' Association, addressing a congress of the International Publishers' Association, said: 'The responsibility of the established publishing industries towards the developing industries of low income countries is clear; it is to help establish local publishers.'

The authors of the Unesco publication *Books for Developing Countries* concluded that '...in the long run, each country's book industry, or as much of it as possible, should preferably be indigenous from the start'.

Both the above quotations contain the word 'industry'. Book production is part of a new complex in each developing region, involving writers, teachers, publishing and distribution, as well as the whole educational structure. Some intermediate technology available in other sectors of the media industry, such as newspaper plant and skills in meeting the short-term needs of book printing, exists in most national industries.

In taking an industrial view of education, the concomitant conclusion must be accepted: the necessity to set up new projects within the framework of national conditions with the disciplines of industry. First, for many developing countries, there is a positive advantage in labour-intensive projects, in which manpower replaces expensive machines. Then, training and selection must produce craftsmen and technical staff for middle management and 'middle level manpower'.

Non-book techniques

The book has always been, after all, a reading machine, but it cannot be used mechanically. While television, teaching machines, audio-visual aids and other methods are, together with traditional textbooks, part of the established resources of the teacher, the book, as we have known it for generations, and at the hands of printer, publisher and designer, still provides a directness between the reader and the author which has yet to be replaced.

One of the world's largest publishers, with a large stake in the teaching-machine market, defined a book in an advertisement in the same way. The advertisement, which shows a large photograph of an open textbook has a caption which reads: 'This is a teaching machine. It is composed of the finest printed circuits but is completely non-electronic. It has been produced in its present form for more than 500 years and is still man's most successful device for bridging space and time to connect one thoughtful mind with another.'

Nevertheless, as the author of a Unesco report on space communication pointed out, 'The supremacy of the printed word has been challenged; first, by the spoken word transmitted by radio, and then, by the image transmitted on television.'

Films, teaching machines, television, and picture and sound transmission do not constitute new media for education in themselves; they are the technical methods which permit the powerful extension of standard means. As such, they are not dissimilar from printing, which is, after all, graphic communication by multiplied impressions. The steam and cylinder press were developed for the newspaper and modified in a century and a half for edition printing for education, just as the peaceful uses of communication satellites have been developed first for telecommunication and news networks. Their educational uses must be harnessed effectively and quickly.

In developed regions, methodology, or curricula limitations stemming from teachers being tied to a limited range of textbooks, may be major problems to the introduction of some of the new devices. Can this be said to pertain to developing countries where the need to press into service any and every resource for literacy and education at all levels is acute? The *per capita* supply of reading matter in Asia is equal to one-thirtieth (at most) of the material available to the children and adults of the four major book-producing countries: France, the United Kingdom, the United States and the U.S.S.R. By 1980, the population of the Asian region will have risen to 1,350 million, with 40 per cent at school age. The primary-school enrolment may be in the neighbourhood of 235 million.

Between 1960 and 1964, the percentage share of world population in Africa increased from 8.55 per cent to nearly 10 per cent of the world's inhabitants, but book production remained—and still remains—at about 1.5 per cent. The conference of ministers of education in the Arab regions in 1970 reported that, in the last decade, school and educational enrolments increased by 60 per cent (the latest figures were an increase from a total of 8½ million in 1960, to 13¾ million in 1967). The same study projects an increase in the total cost of education in the Arab countries by 70 per cent in the next eight years.

Shortage of trained teachers and school buildings and the restricted budgets available for textbooks make it essential to increase teaching resources by other means. But, where the teacher level of training and capability is low, the textbook would appear to remain an essential component of school work.

Films in teaching

The cinema was early pressed into use as an educational device, although the actual use of films in classroom situations had to wait for a number of years. The cost of installing projectors and screens (and later, sound equipment) in schools was considered a major obstacle. Even before schools were so equipped, however, troops of children were carefully ushered to cinemas by teachers and parents to see particularly edifying films.

The film has two obvious advantages in education. First, a single film can be seen simultaneously by a considerable number of persons. Second, the movement of images can create a sense of participation that is attainable only by the very best textbooks.

For the developing countries, there is still another benefit. The audience does not have to be literate. A farmer, for example, can be given a demonstration of how to improve his agricultural production, or how to repair his machinery, at a cost considerably less than that of sending experts into the field.

To the question whether he will remember what he has seen, without the use of an illustrated manual to which he can refer repeatedly, the answer has frequently been to refer to the fact that, of necessity, the illiterate has a good memory. In addition, an alternate, less-sophisticated device exists, the filmstrip. This can be used, image after image, at the pace of the slowest learner. While the advantage of animation has been lost, it is comparatively inexpensive and portable, although it requires an expert to read a text accompanying the pictures.

For all these reasons, the film, in its various forms, is now a permanent part of the educational process.

'Since the purpose of government is to develop the country, most developing nations use film units in the hope that their output will build the country and carry it forward,' says a Unesco report, which goes on to define the film-maker as a social engineer.

Without depreciating the advantages of films, as opposed to books, in teaching situations, it is apparent that they suffer certain drawbacks. They are less flexible in use than the pages of a book. They are used only in an essentially artificial situation—a hall or cinema—while the book can be read anywhere. They do not permit, either, the kind of interrelation between teacher and student that is the ideal of education, since the role of the audience is essentially passive. Finally, they are more limited in scope often than some of the newer audio-visual media, such as radio and television.

Television and radio

The right to information is a prerequisite of almost all other human rights. Where there is a high degree of illiteracy, television and radio provide the simplest means of mass communication.

Language barriers may be less difficult than methodology, but teaching by radio poses problems in every continent.

In India, teaching programmes are needed in twelve major languages, and seventy-two additional languages, spoken by more than 100,000 people.

Even with the use of satellite-beamed programmes, the cost of equipment will be high for national resources. India will need 40 million radio receivers and 9 million television sets to cope with educational transmissions.

In recent years, Unesco has played a part in developing rural programmes from over thirty stations of All India Radio. These broadcasts go out in many languages (including 250 dialects) for thirty hours a day.

In Algeria, lessons aimed to increase adult literacy began in 1969, as part of a Unesco literacy pilot project. Four of the programmes a week go out in Arabic. Unesco helped set up a pilot project for functional literacy for Mali Radio. The Department of

Education of the Arab Republic of Egypt Sound Broadcasting System started short fifteen-minute courses in 1968. Ten thousand five hundred students followed these courses at 350 centres.

These are only some of the most recent uses of radio and television, harnessed to education in the developing countries. Add to them the electronic printer and, ultimately, facsimile transmission and the potential is realized for advanced teaching-machine systems linked directly to television receivers in the classroom.

Facsimile transmission for transmitting logistics or whole pages of newspapers opens up vast educational possibilities. As in most printing techniques, newspaper needs have allowed a capital outlay by manufacturers for research and development which, ultimately, benefits educational publishing. The AT-3 Telenews has been developed by a Japanese daily to overcome the difficulty of distribution in the congested traffic conditions in Tokyo. Weather conditions in Scandinavian countries are encouraging national newspapers to develop the same techniques. The limitations of road, rail and air networks can similarly be overcome in developing regions.

Facsimile transmission systems will provide a needed link in the total systems for nations to interchange live television programmes in colour, for programmed learning and general education.

A further development is the use of tape-to-film transfer techniques which allow the making of educational films on television tapes and transferring them for projection on wide screen in conventional cinemas. This process brings film-making nearer to television production, thus making it possible for more immediate shooting and distribution than was ever possible by conventional photographic methods.

'Space communication is evolving at a time when there is worldwide need for the expansion of telecommunication to transmit a greater volume of words and images over greater distances... these techniques contribute to telecommunication as a whole and they will do so to an increasing extent... [they] will enhance the role of these mass media in the dissemination of information, the rapid spread of education and culture,' says *Space Communication and the Mass Media*, a Unesco report.

The use of computers, photosetting machines, films, radio and other audio-visual teaching devices and even satellites are all extensions of graphic-communication systems.

All are powerful tools to extend man's capability to teach and learn.

The choice of technology is wide, but the means and experience is still limited where it is most needed—in the developing countries.

With the advent of the new media, there has been a re-examination of the use of books for education, and with it a restatement of old criticisms. 'The book, isolates the reader and his responses and tends to separate him from the powerful oral influences of family and teacher,' said Neil Postman in *Television and the Teaching of English*. But no method has been found to begin to replace the most practical and cheapest way of communicating ideas directly between the most skilled specialist teacher (the author) and a child, at the pace of every child in a class. The ability to turn back pages again and again until the facts are grasped, and at the same time to have the whole text at hand—in the classroom, at home or on holiday—still provides the most powerful und unique resources for literacy or advanced education. While printers and the makers of films and television provide technical training, there is a real need now for editors with a broad knowledge of all the technologies before it is possible to use other media effectively in developed as well as developing countries.

The editor's place has been an uneasy one in book production in the past, too often regarded by the author as a technician bedevilled by printing detail and by the printer as a semi-skilled designer trespassing on his own hallowed ground. As for the book designer, he is an essential collaborator with the author and editor in creating books.

Even with production specialists to hand, the editor's job is to give visible shape to the words and ideas of the author in the most understandable form—whatever the medium.

If these ideas can be conveyed better in another medium, taking account of all the factors, then the editor's decision may well be final in a new context in the next twenty years. 'Those who have a relatively direct vision of facts are often incapable of translating their vision into words, while those who possess the words have usually lost the vision.' With these words, Bertrand Russell sums up acutely the dilemmas of the author–editor relationship that will arise at the planning stage of teaching programmes in the next decade.

It matters little if within the industrial complex of educational printing and publishing the editor is regarded as an artist, technical writer or a systems man (he already has to have an element of all three in his make-up and training); what matters is what he does and how he can best be trained for his job. The editor plays his part in the design or typography of a book. Karl Gerstner described typography as 'an art not in spite of its serving a purpose, but for that very reason. The role of the designer lies not at the margin of the task, but at its very centre'.

If the editor's job is—as it must be—to shape ideas, words and pictures for any of the media, his role—with that of the author and film-maker at the very centre—must be recognized and defined, and training resources set up.

Training in publishing for print

Those who will be responsible for the design and editing of books in the next twenty years will have their work influenced by three major factors. The first will be the ever-increasing volume of production by offset, with illustration quality and layout so far generally available only in high-priced art books.

Second, high-speed photocomposing machines already provide editors and designers with new challenges in creating printed matter, whether it is a half-million run for a children's first reader or a title page for a 1,000-copy edition of a learned treatise.

Third, both editors and designers will be influenced by visual display systems already available in computer installations.

These systems allow an editor to correct or change a text and see the effect of these corrections on a visual display similar to a domestic television screen connected to a computer in which the basic text is stored. Models have already been developed to display eight to ten lines of textual matter which can be projected on the screen. Although such systems at the moment have limited typographical refinement, the fact that any printed matter, from a dictionary to a directory, can be updated and re-stored, and ultimately reset on a linecasting or photocomposing system, opens up immense possibilities. Composition, whether it is set through a computer or manually created, is a part of the creative design and editorial system.

Textbook writers, artists and editors require unusual characteristics and education. As the *ABC of Literature* (Unesco, 1965) emphasizes: 'Writing and illustrating simple books is no simple matter. It is both a science and an art. A science, because it has a whole set of rules and techniques ... an art, because the books are ... literature.'

Along with the mechanical changes ahead are a vast number of creative changes. For example, group textbook authorship is now more and more common, with teachers, psychologists and illustrators joining forces. Furthermore, the very visual potentialities are bound to have their effect on the text of general books and even of poetry and literature.

Despite the enormous increase in the number of book titles produced in the last half century the average printing numbers, excluding best-sellers, reprints or classics and certain educational books, is still a surprisingly low one. It took until the middle of the sixteenth century to reach an average printing number of 1,000 copies per title in Europe. By the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, print runs, per title, averaged between 2,500 and 3,000 copies; this continued into the early 1900s.

Three-quarters of the way through the twentieth century, it is estimated that 80 per cent of all printed matter is outdated in ten to fifteen years and some 90 per cent probably within twenty years.

Until recently, encyclopaedias and many textbooks remained in print, unchanged for many years. Now, the speed with which information is either outdated or requires some amendment of one sort or another may amount in less than two years to 40 per cent or 50 per cent of the original text. The long tradition of skills in the hot-metal composing room, in make-up, line insertion, making space and reducing overrun matter, has permitted this to be done by authors and editors in the developed countries.

The combined efforts of printers and publishers demand higher standards of skill and training and a greater knowledge, in real technical terms, of the other man's job. In addition, the vastly increased investments in materials demand more exacting managerial ability and techniques. If publishing is industry—as no one now denies—it calls for industrial management capacity.

Both at the shop floor and at management level, problems of retraining have to be faced. All new systems require changes in day-to-day working methods. In printing, the changes may not be as difficult as they would appear at first glance. The compositor who has been trained for conventional systems on a hot-metal linecaster, when faced with a photocomposing keyboard, does not have to adjust mentally or physically to any great extent. A period of a few weeks to a month or two is all that is required for a trained operator on a high-speed linecaster to learn the keyboard layout and operations required by a teletypesetting system or a film-composition keyboard. The major changes are in production routines: the balance of keyboards to filmsetters required, methods of film processing, the retraining of hand compositors (often experienced for many years in metal make-up) to handle film by scalpel and to insert correction matter by visual alignment.

One factor stands out in printing technology now and will continue to be the first consideration in planning for training in the era of changes in the next twenty years, that is, that book production, in developed or developing countries, will be done more and more by systems, and less and less by individual machine concepts, as have existed in the past.

This already applies in the largest book-producing countries, in the field of integrated computer filmsetting systems, web offset and semi-automated book binding.

In the developing countries, education itself is not only a great concept, but increasingly also a vast technical industry, which must plan its strategy.

By 1980, the world labour force will have increased by 280 million, the overwhelming majority from developing countries. There is not only an obligation to provide the means to the end—textbooks—but a further obligation on all nations to prevent an unemployment explosion in the developing countries.

The 226 million additional unemployed, which the International Labour Organisation forecasts by 1980 in the developing countries, are not only a statistic: they are the young people of today.

Even if the means are provided to supply enough textbooks for literacy, there is the additional need to train the labour force for better jobs. This also means that the printing and publishing industries in developing countries must consider their methods and training as part of their nation's employment policy. In printing and publishing, this involves the greater use of intermediate technology.

The use of established composing systems, simple web-offset presses and ancillary equipment in developing regions must take account of the levels of increased employment, production, training and maintenance which must be achieved as part of the strategy to combat: first, unemployment, described as the world's unnatural disaster, and second—illiteracy.

CHAPTER 4

Distribution

Bookshops

In an era of change and talk of change the bookseller who maintains a supply of volumes on his premises is probably still the mainstay of the book trade—although not necessarily of every publisher—and is likely to remain so for a considerable time to come. Nevertheless, in the face of competition from 'free' lending libraries, direct selling by publishers to the public and the availability of books in outlets other than bookshops, the survival of the bookseller is something of a mystery. This mere fact of survival, and often not only survival but development and growth, is surely proof that bookshops are an essential part of the community. This does not mean that the community is conscious of this and gives bookshops the support they need. Far too many parts of the world, and not only the developing countries, lack adequate bookshops and far too many shops are finding that soaring costs of all kinds are depressing their net profit margins to 3 per cent to 4 per cent of turnover.

For the majority of publishers the bookshop is the essential link in the distribution chain. In spite of price increases in recent years most books are still relatively cheap in developed countries and, unlike more expensive items such as motor-cars, their display cannot be left to comparatively few main dealers. Still less can individual publishers afford to display their wares throughout the world, or even to their domestic market. The bookshop, then, is the publisher's display case, and more than that, the good bookseller can be his touchstone of public taste and demand. Through contact with the bookseller (usually via a sales representative) the publisher is able to assess the probable demand more accurately than might otherwise be possible. Local factors can have an important bearing on the sale of a particular title, and here the advice of the bookseller who knows his customers and his locality can be invaluable, enabling both the publisher and the public to benefit from lower prices thanks to the publisher's more accurate costing.

The demand for certain types of books—textbooks, tertiary level educational books and books for such professions as medicine and the law—can be foretold fairly accurately by the publisher. Nevertheless, the publisher must rely on the booksellers to stock not only these 'safe' titles and the best-seller: but the host of other titles which the reader is unlikely to buy unless they are readily to hand or can be ordered with the minimum of trouble. At its least, the bookshop provides a service for the impulse buyer who may only be looking for a present to give and a place where the reader and potential buyer may browse. At its best, the bookshop, particularly the specialist bookshop in a university town, offers all this plus the advantage of skilled advice to the reader on books in his or her special subject or interest. In developing countries the bookseller is often the only source of book supply and these are the countries where the need is greatest and the resources for supplying it least.

The demand not only for specialized books but for books at all educational levels, many of which have to be imported, puts a heavy strain on the distribution machinery. The bookseller may be able to order through local agents representing foreign publishers but otherwise must order direct from overseas. He must therefore know his market thoroughly or risk heavy loss through under- or over-ordering and costly delays. Books ordered from abroad may also involve customs clearance at the point of entry and the extra expense of using an agent if the business is located at a distant point. More often than not in developing countries there is no national system of distribution available to him and he must make his own arrangements with a transport company.

In terms of the over-all pattern of distribution the bookshop is virtually an adjunct of the publisher's warehouse, taking stock in quantity and passing it on to the individual customer. But it is something more, because at the same time the bookshop stimulates demand by the mere fact of having books locally available on display and for sale. Together with the local public library (if there is one), it is in fact the main source for meeting local book needs.

In recent years it has become apparent that love of books in itself does not guarantee success as a bookseller. As the book trade becomes increasingly professional, and to some extent more commercial, it is the professionally trained bookseller who will succeed.

Many developed countries have for years had a highly developed system of training, and this has been emulated elsewhere. In developing regions, where the needs are greatest, countries such as India and Pakistan have organized courses for bookseller training, often with the help and guidance of Unesco. Additionally, developed countries frequently provide training for booksellers from overseas. Some, such as the British Book Development Council, have bookseller officers whose job it is to visit overseas countries to train local booksellers, particularly the university bookseller. Training is becoming increasingly important in a business which, owing to the sheer number of titles published, grows more and more complicated and requires professional skills probably higher than for other retailers.

Not all bookshops, unfortunately, provide the ideal high standards of stocking and service that both the public and publishers require. In addition, in order to survive, many sell other items: stationery, toys, leather goods and so forth. Bookselling is not universally profitable. Often, too, shops which are mainly concerned with an entirely different business sell books as a supplement to their main interest—sports goods shops and gardening shops are obvious examples. To a greater or lesser degree, however, all are essential to the distribution chain.

Libraries

Bookshops are concerned in the first place with book purchasers, but there is a larger section of the community to be catered for—the book borrower. Given the abundance of titles available, few can afford to buy all the books they wish to read, nor can they afford the room to store them. In addition, many works of reference are needed only occasionally and probably do not justify purchase by the individual. Therefore, for the book borrower and the researcher seeking reference material and for information retrieval generally, a vast network of libraries has been built up throughout the world. As with bookshops, the libraries in the developing countries are usually less well-endowed with funds and books, but in many developing countries the establishment of a soundly based, professionally run library system is properly given high priority on both educational and social grounds.

There are many types of libraries: national and public libraries where the buildings and the stock (books, periodicals, newspapers, microfiche and microfilm, gramophone records) are paid for out of public funds, as are the salaries of the, usually, professionally trained staff, and the use of the facilities is freely available to the public; university libraries, for use by faculty and students—often holding multiple copies of certain titles which are available on long loan; school libraries, supplementing textbooks; specialist libraries forming part of professional or government institutions; industrial libraries operated by companies to provide reference material and perhaps textbooks for their staff; commercial libraries from which books can be borrowed on payment of an annual subscription or a small rental charge per book. These latter are decreasing in number as the facilities offered by the public libraries steadily improve. In most countries the 'free' public libraries are maintained by the taxpayer by way of national or local taxes, so that using a commercial library may mean in some ways paying twice over for the same service. At one time the commercial libraries had the advantage of more recently published titles and newer stock. Over the last twenty years or so this advantage has been reduced as more money has been devoted to the public libraries, which in many countries can now offer the borrower the latest titles, including entertainment reading, a reserve service for books out on loan and an obtain-to-order service, either through the inter-library loan system or by purchase. In developing countries library service of all kinds and at all levels are still, generally, regrettably inadequate. That is where the hunger is. Literacy languishes unless constantly fed.

Libraries are a vital link in the chain of distribution which means, basically, transferring a book from a publisher's warehouse to the ultimate reader. Not only do libraries make books available to those who would not otherwise be able to read them, either for lack of money or lack of a local bookshop, libraries, in particular children's libraries, can also encourage and develop the habit and practice of reading.

It is sometimes argued that the existence of libraries militates against the sale of books in shops, but there is little evidence to confirm this. While one copy of a title in a public library may be loaned eighty times or more, it is improbable that all those eighty people would have purchased a copy had they not been able to borrow it. Possibly one or two might have done so. Nevertheless, many people who would not generally enter a bookshop will use a library, and in course of time may become interested in owning as well as reading books. In developing countries, where books are so scarce, libraries have of course an exceptional social importance.

For the publisher, library buying can help materially in underwriting the cost of producing a title. Library requirements can be forecast with a fair degree of accuracy and this helps to determine the number of copies printed. Library business, at least in most countries, can also provide useful basic turnover for the local bookseller, which in turn contributes to the wider distribution of books as it enables the bookseller, supported by his firm library orders, to buy speculatively to meet the demand of the general public.

In North America libraries are often supplied direct by publishers or by wholesalers, but in Europe, Australasia and indeed in most other parts of the world, libraries are supplied by bookshops. These may be specialist bookshops or 'library suppliers' who concentrate on serving libraries rather than the general public. These suppliers often offer specially reinforced library bindings, plastic covers and other services that libraries need, but the principle remains the same. Supply is via a bookseller. Few of the developing countries with the exception of India have highly developed publishing industries of their own, and usually they have an enormous territory to cover. India has, it may be noted, made it a practice to lend its publishing and bookselling expertise to neighbouring countries in South-East Asia.

Because libraries, like bookshops, exist to serve the public, and, unlike bookshops, are supported by local or national taxation, it is argued that they have a responsibility to support local bookshops by giving them their business. Thus, as noted earlier, on the basis of this 'assured' library business bookshops can order extra copies both for display and sale to the public.

Inter-library loans

One method of distribution—to be more precise, circulation—of books and printed matter which does not attract a great deal of public attention is the system of inter-library loans. Such loans are extremely important in ensuring the widest possible dissemination of books.

As with booksellers, so with libraries. Few can afford, in terms of space or money, to hold a copy of every book a reader might require. The national libraries in many countries, to which publishers are usually required by law to donate copies of every publication, try to be comprehensive, but even they find it difficult. The problem is exacerbated where the national library is the repository of international publications. Increasingly, material is being stored on microfilm, or by similar methods, simply because lack of space—even in the great national libraries—makes it impossible to do otherwise.

For the library—whether it be a public library, a university library, or a specialist library of one kind or another—the only solution to this problem is inter-library lending. Most countries, at least those fortunate enough to possess well-established libraries, operate a centrally controlled system whereby a library receiving a request for a title not in stock can make a requisition for it and, if the title is available at another library and is not in use, can obtain it on loan. This system is particularly valuable where a local library, with necessarily limited resources, may have one or two readers with specialized interests. The local library could not afford to cater fully for the interests of just two or three readers, because book funds must obviously be used to the benefit of all. The inter-library lending arrangement can make available to these readers the resources of the best libraries in the country specializing in their particular interest. As the amount of printed material available and being published increases each year, libraries are making greater use of this facility, and the inter-library loan systems are more and more being operated with the help of computers.

In many countries there are also regional inter-library lending systems, with individual libraries specializing in different subjects; in this way the libraries of the region together can cover several specializations and need call less on the national centre.

The principle of inter-library lending of publications is not confined to a national level. For very many years the major national libraries of the world have had arrangements providing for an exchange of publications, particularly State documents, with their overseas opposite numbers, or sometimes direct with other governments. Additionally, many specialist libraries operate a regular gift exchange of books or journals so as to overcome currency difficulties. The growth of modern technology has made it vitally important that these arrangements be enlarged and extended to cover libraries other than the national institutions, important though they are.

First, the outstanding advances in science and technology in the past few years have brought with them an enormous increase in the amount of printed matter available. Perhaps the most startling growth can be seen in the number of scientific journals available. At the beginning of this century there were probably some 10,000 scientific journals published throughout the world. By 1960 this figure had risen to 100,000. If the increase continues at this rate, there could well be over a million journals being published by the year 2000. Secondly, the technology of book and journal production has itself improved, thus making it possible for many more publications to be issued. The growth in the number of paperback titles published, referred to elsewhere, is probably the most obvious example of this.

The lending and exchange of publications and documents on an international basis is essential to the free flow of ideas and knowledge throughout the world. Just as at a national level the libraries and institutions need to assist each other, so on an international level it is not feasible for a library in one country, however large, to store the world's publications.

The importance of inter-library lending and exchange on an international scale has been fully understood by Unesco, which in 1958 adopted two conventions: the Convention Concerning the International Exchange of Publications and the Convention Concerning the Exchange of Official Publications and Government Documents between States. These became operative in 1961. In some countries where the arrangements for international lending and exchange are not handled by the national libraries, special exchange centres have been established.

The international exchange of publications is not confined to developed countries, nor is it affected by political considerations. Exchanges take place between countries of vastly different political persuasions, and even involve governments in exile who may still be issuing official documents.

Apart from these 'official' arrangements, a great deal of lending and exchange takes place between academic and learned societies, universities and libraries on an international basis, quite informally.

One result of the growth of inter-library lending and exchange has been the standardization of bibliographical references, changes in cataloguing practices, and the standardization of title abbreviations, all of which help to make lending and exchange easier. The introduction, in 1967, of the Standard Book Number—now adopted as an International Standard Book Number by the International Organization for Standardization (ISO)—will also greatly facilitate this interchange, particularly where the use of computers is involved. A similar standard-numbering system for journals has been devised on an international basis.

So long as the annual output of books, journals and other printed matter continues to increase—and at present it shows little sign of doing otherwise—so long will it be impossible for any library or institution to meet every reader's requirements. In these circumstances, inter-library lending and exchange on a national or international basis is almost certain to grow, both in scale and importance. It is an important contribution to meeting the book hunger.

Bookshops and libraries are two major and longest-established media for the distribution of books to the would-be reader. However, so vast is the output of titles each year—and there is little sign of any reduction—that publishers must constantly seek new methods of distribution. One obvious one, which is practised by many other trades, is direct selling to the public.

There were itinerant print and tract sellers who plied their trade before bookshops were set up, but present-day methods of direct selling are somewhat more sophisticated.

Book clubs

Book clubs are probably the main method of distribution ouside the bookshops and libraries. Just as there are those who are reluctant to enter a bookshop but prefer a library, there are those who for reasons of convenience, or because they are overwhelmed by the plethora of books presented to them or because, on the contrary, no bookstores are available, prefer to leave it to others to make a selection for them. The modern book club probably originated in Germany, where the clubs enjoy enormous prestige and membership, as indeed they do in North America where the choice of a title by a major club can have a very marked effect upon sales in all editions. The same is true, although probably to a lesser degree, in Europe generally. In the Soviet Union and Czechoslovakia and elsewhere, a book-club edition offered to a specialist public (e.g. engineering) may provide the best means of maximizing distribution. India has also experimented successfully with home-library plans and its example is now being tried by other developing countries.

The book-club method is basically simple. Knowing the number of members, the book-club publisher can forecast demand far more accurately than the original publisher (where they are not one and the same), and by concentrating on a limited number of titles in the year (twelve if he does one a month) can make them available at a lower published price than if the demand were 'unknown'. Normally, on joining a club members undertake to purchase a minimum number of titles and usually each month are offered in advance a choice and a number of alternatives. Most book clubs are reprint clubs, which means that they offer titles already published and of proved popularity. In recent years, however, in developed countries at least, the simultaneous club has developed where a title is made available at the same time as the original edition. However, the book-club editions are almost always recognizably different from the trade edition and usually lower in price, although the members normally pay postage and packing costs over and above the club price.

Most clubs solicit membership by press or direct-mail advertising, and membership may be direct with the club or via a bookshop. There are some who argue that book clubs, like libraries, can be detrimental to the traditional bookshop, but available evidence tends to indicate that the clubs cater for additional readers: those who for one reason or another prefer to have their books delivered to their homes and their choice narrowed to a relatively restricted selection of titles, either to their literary tastes or to their professional or amateur specializations (e.g. engineering, cooking, gardening, etc.).

Direct selling

For many years encyclopaedias have been sold by direct mail and from door to door. The majority of encyclopaedias are expensive because, of course, they encompass a wide range of knowledge, information, comment and illustration, and need constantly to be updated. The best of them might be called libraries of knowledge in capsule form. Booksellers may be reluctant to invest in stocking such works and, because of the price, the potential buyer understandably needs time to examine a specimen copy. The direct offer is therefore the logical answer. Often, too, encyclopaedias are purchased by instalments, as arranged by the publisher's representative.

More recently selling by direct mail in developed countries has extended beyond the encyclopaedia market, although it still tends to apply to the more expensive books. The cost of direct mail itself is usually high and the wastage of costly brochures and postage can be quite considerable. The books offered in this way are more often than not expensive art books, cookery or gardening books, or books of the self-instruction variety. Favourable pre-publication prices are frequently offered. Some internationally famous magazines are also sold in this way and for a number of publishers this is a most important channel of distribution, even in countries with an established traditional bookshop distribution system. In some developing countries direct mail to the customer may be the only method of distribution available, although in such cases the type of books involved will be vastly different—often low-priced editions of essential textbooks or reference works. The bookseller in a developing country has a particular responsibility to serve local and national needs, both from his shop and by mail, and consequently he also needs both local and national support from institutional customers such as libraries.

Another direct selling method which has come to the fore recently in some countries is the 'premium offer', usually a book offered as a bonus to the purchaser of a completely unrelated item, for example, a tin of coffee. The purchaser must collect a stipulated number of coupons which are sent to the manufacturer in exchange for a book. This offers another means of bringing books to those who might not consider exploring a bookshop.

Whether it be by bookshop, library or direct mail, the eventual aim is the same: to bring together the book and the reader. With millions of readers and potential readers of thousands of titles, this distribution problem must be a continual challenge.

In developing countries, where populations are generally large (by European standards) in relation to the geographic area, the bookseller has a particularly heavy responsibility. He must try to cater for the needs of a community which may include students at all levels of education, local professional men and women such as doctors and lawyers, as well as the cultural and literary demands of his community. Usually he will have to purchase the books he needs (generally in anticipation of the needs of his customers) months ahead of their actual demand, and also he must be willing to place special orders, knowing that it may be a month or two before he can hope to supply his customer. If in the meantime the customer has changed his mind, or has happened to find another source of supply, the bookseller is left with what may well prove to be a costly but unsaleable volume on his shelves. Satisfying the specialist's book hunger can be costly.

To minimize these and similar risks, governments in many of the developing countries have ensured that the major part of the school-book business is handled by the booksellers and have encouraged the bookselling profession by tax concessions (similar to those made in the European value-added tax system) and by providing facilities for the training of booksellers, sometimes with the help of outside experts.

Publishing is not distribution

It is only in recent years that distribution seems to have emerged as a major factor in the author–publisher–reader cycle. For our purposes here we have included the printer, binder and paper-supplier with the publisher. However, the majority of publishers tend by their very nature to be editorially minded and rightly concerned with the author and the content of the books they publish. Some are particularly conscious of production and the aesthetic considerations of fine typography, bindings and paper. Many are skilled in sales and known to booksellers the world over, but few are likely to have become publishers because they were attracted by the problems attaching to the distribution of books. The burning desire to spread a message and the logistics of doing so are two very different things.

In their own ways, however, editorial and production departments create distribution problems and contribute to escalation in costs. The major publishing countries such as France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Japan, the United Kingdom, the United States and U.S.S.R. are all currently publishing 30,000 or more new titles, new editions and reprints each year, and most will have somewhere in the region of 200,000 titles in print at any time, with the United Kingdom topping the list. This editorial contribution is matched by the vast range of book sizes, each one adopted for a perfectly valid reason, but making it extremely difficult to standardize packing processes.

Such a vast output needs a large number of outlets to provide publishers with the maximum opportunity to display their titles, but this large number of outlets creates problems and adds to the cost of distribution and thus to the cost of the book. An inquiry into distribution carried out in one country in 1968 disclosed that for many of the larger publishing firms between 6 per cent and 10 per cent of their customers accounted for 90 per cent of their business, and these figures can probably be repeated with little variation in other countries. This means that considerable time, money and energy are being expended on customers of little individual value, but how many businesses can afford to jettison 10 per cent of their turnover, however difficult it may be to handle? There is also the fact that books are something more than commercial commodities. The reader expects a book to be available in circumstances which would be considered economically absurd by other trades, and furthermore the book trade expects and tries to provide this service—particularly in developing countries, where the need is greatest and the financial reward less.

Hence, the importance of the publisher's distribution expert has increased; he is usually a member of the board of equal rank with his editorial and production colleagues and quite often recruited from outside the trade. This is an encouraging sign, but the distribution director cannot achieve miracles overnight; he is faced with the basic problem that no bookshop can possibly stock even one copy of each of the hundreds of thousands of titles in print. This means inevitably a constant and growing flow of single-copy orders, which are not only costly to handle in themselves but can easily delay the flow of larger orders through the publisher's warehouse.

In Scandinavia and in the Netherlands the trade has its own trade-warehouse and delivery service, organized to reduce costs by bulking together the orders from many publishers for the same customer, but it is not certain whether these organizations could function as efficiently in countries where both the publishing industry and the geographical area are larger. Interesting efforts have been made in the United States and, of course, in the socialist countries where the profit motive is not the dominant factor.

Costs of distribution

The cost of distribution is reflected in the published price. Whether warehousing, invoicing, packing and dispatching be handled electronically (computers), mechanically or manually, it still costs money—on average some 10 per cent to 12½ per cent of turnover (to which should be added the cost of accounting and accounts collection), possibly 7 per cent or more of the published price.

These percentages are based on cost of distribution somewhat narrowly confined to warehouse and invoicing procedures, but the bookseller's discount is also part of the distribution cost, because without him the eventual reader cannot be reached. The trend today is to grant larger discounts to booksellers to help them meet the increasing costs which they face in common with other retailers. This helps the publisher to increase sales and the reader to have access to the wide range of books that are published. A pattern is emerging of preferential terms granted not only on the size of an order but also according to the quality of the bookshop.

Bookselling, like publishing, is becoming increasingly professional and for the good stockholding bookseller—an essential part of the distribution process—to remain in business the shop must be: attractive to customers; probably centrally sited (which means an expensive rental); well stocked and staffed with trained personnel, many of whom will be specialists in a particular subject. Groups of booksellers sharing a common interest in a particular field of bookselling—such as the European Group of Scientific and Technical Booksellers, the Scandinavian University Booksellers' Group, or with an interest in raising standards generally, such as the Charter Group of the Booksellers' Association of Great Britain and Ireland—are looking to publishers for support, as also are general and, more particularly, specialist booksellers in developing countries.

Generally speaking discounts have risen in the last five years. The book which carried a 35 per cent discount will as likely as not now be subject to a 37½ per cent or 40 per cent discount. The 30 per cent discount book will now be 35 per cent, and the 25 per cent discount book now 30 per cent. Unfortunately it is difficult to generalize because there are probably as many different terms of supply as there are publishers. This, in itself, does not help to reduce the cost of distribution. Standard, rationalized discounts would save time and money, but there are many difficulties in the way.

Terms are most frequently related to the type of book and to the size of the order. A bookseller will normally receive a smaller discount on a medical book than on a novel, for example, because the likelihood is that the market for the former is assured so that the bookseller is at relatively little risk, whereas the novel is probably a speculative purchase. On the novel the bookseller will receive a larger discount to pay him for displaying the title, and possibly to compensate him to some extent if he is unsuccessful in selling it. On the other hand, he may not always be able to return unsold copies as easily as with a technical book.

School textbooks are usually subject to relatively low discounts because they are normally purchased in quantity, and the price of such books should in any case be kept as low as possible. In developing countries school books often represent a major part of booksellers' business. The need to satisfy the market at the lowest possible price must be carefully balanced against the parallel need for booksellers to make enough profit to stay in business. The State itself in many cases should take direct action, for healthy bookshops are of great benefit to the whole community.

Like any other distribution cost, the bookseller's discount must be reflected in the published price. Because the author's payment is usually by way of royalty related to the published price and because the publisher needs a margin if he is to continue publishing, an increase of 5 per cent in a bookseller's discount can mean a rise of between 15 per cent and 20 per cent in the published price. There is an enormous demand for books throughout the world, but the need is often greatest among those who are least able to afford high prices, for example, among students, particularly in the developing countries.

The published price of a book, which to some extent governs the bookseller's discount, is determined by many factors: the production cost, paper, typesetting, printing and binding, the author's royalty, and the publisher's expenses, staff, warehouse, office premises, advertising, etc. and the number of copies printed. The larger the number the lower the unit cost, within reason, and the lower the published price.

Imported books

The local selling price of an imported book is almost invariably higher than its price in the country of publication. This is understandable because in addition to the cost of the book there is the cost of freight, insurance and currency—it costs money to make payment to another country—

and the bookseller buying an imported book usually takes a greater stock risk: he buys in larger quantities because replacement stock takes longer to arrive, and an additional margin is required by the bookseller to cover the extra risk of unsaleable stock, for he may not have the same opportunities as the home bookseller to examine individual books in advance.

In most countries there are established schedules of retail selling prices for imported books. These relate the local selling price to the bookseller's invoiced cost or to the discount received from the publisher. In Europe it is common to establish a local selling price by converting the original published price at a rate something above the official rate of exchange of the currency concerned. In the developing countries of Africa and Asia the local selling price of imported books may well be determined by the authorities, who are naturally anxious that educational books in particular are made available at the lowest possible prices. Even in these countries, however, the bookseller is normally allowed to add a little to the original published price to cover the additional cost factors already mentioned.

Costs of postal, road, sea and air transport

The visible and direct distribution cost is the charge for physically transporting a book from the publisher's warehouse to the bookseller and ultimate reader.

Ideally, and most economically, a publisher prefers to move large quantities of books at one time to one destination. The same is true of all businesses, but it is not always possible. In fact, far more often books are handled in small quantities and this, combined with the fact that many books have a relatively low published price and a comparatively high weight, makes their physical transport expensive in relation to their value.

Where it is possible to deal in sizeable consignments, books are usually carried by road or rail to the home bookseller and by sea freight to the overseas customer.

Let us take domestic distribution first. Road and rail transport tends to become increasingly expensive each year and is often unsuitable for books. Where these methods can be used they add relatively little to the cost of a book because the cost of transport usually amounts to little more than 3 to 5 per cent of the published price. However, apart from the question of rising charges, there is the problem that when goods are sent by rail they first have to be conveyed to the station of departure and then carried, by road, to the bookseller from the station of destination. Not only does multiple handling in this way increase the risk of damage, but it can mean delays. Railways must endeavour to operate economically, hence the publisher is required to cover delivery to the station—and at the receiving end delivery is delayed until there is a large enough load to justify sending out a vehicle for local delivery.

Road transport has in theory an advantage over rail as door-to-door service with only one handling is possible. In practice, however, door-to-door delivery is rare. More often, goods are carried for the main part of the journey on large vehicles and transferred at local depots to smaller vehicles for delivery in the surrounding area. As with rail, there is always the risk that a consignment will be delayed at such a depot until it is economically worth while to send it on its way, with perhaps a delay of several days.

Such delay in delivering books can be extremely serious for the bookseller. The reader has come to expect perhaps a higher standard of service from the book trade than from other trades, particularly in the developed countries with a sophisticated, well-established publishing and bookselling system. Whether a book is wanted for pleasure, study or work, it is usually wanted quickly. The current novel can speedily become out of date, the book for study is needed at the beginning of term and the book for work at the start of an apprenticeship or in connexion with a particular project.

Trade delivery services

To overcome these problems the book trade in many countries operates its own trade delivery service. This is so in the Netherlands and Scandinavia, and in the United Kingdom there is a publishers' and booksellers' parcel delivery service. This latter uses a combination of freight trains covering long distances during the night, depots where the rail consignments are off-loaded and fleets of vans to make local deliveries.

Because such a vast number of titles is published each year no bookseller can hope to stock them all, and in consequence the publisher must expect to receive a constant flow of orders and re-orders, often for one or two copies. For these orders the easiest—though not, alas, the most economical—method of dispatch is by post. Door-to-door delivery is assured at a reasonable speed, but only at a price.

In some countries the Post Office has ceased to be a service industry, possibly subsidized by the government, and instead is now a commercial, revenue-earning enterprise expected to pay its way and make profits.

The special position of books and publications is recognized by some postal administrations by a special rate—a 'printed paper rate' or its equivalent. However, even this favourable rate can be expensive. In the United Kingdom, for example, where the special printed-paper rate for internal mail has now been abolished, it is likely to be close to 7½ per cent of the published price.

International carriage

The movement of books internationally has its own particular problems. Large consignments can be sent by sea freight, but although relatively economical—and only relatively because freight rates are rising steadily—it has drawbacks, the main one being the time taken in transit. For example, books sent by sea from Europe to Asia would be on voyage for something like five weeks, dock to dock. To this must be added the time taken between dock and warehouse at each end. The cost is thus in the region of almost 18 cents a kilo from dock to dock, plus the charges of transport from warehouse to port of dispatch and the eventual cost of sending the books from the port of unloading to the warehouse and then to the bookseller.

The process can be speeded by using container services, but these require large consignments. (Containers are 'boxes' which can be transferred from one means of transport to another, e.g. from road to rail or to ship, without unloading the contents.) Here the sea-freight cost is higher, nearer 26 cents per kg, but the over-all cost is about the same, as container rates are usually warehouse to warehouse. Freight rates, like postal rates, are a matter of international agreement.

Apart from the rates themselves, the cost of packing is also a major factor when using sea freight. Books are likely to be consigned with other, much heavier, cargo and must be strongly packed to withstand this.

Postal dispatches

A great many books are sent by post to overseas customers. Probably half the international traffic in books is by this method. International postal rates are governed by the Universal Postal Union (UPU), which has over 140 member countries and meets in a congress, usually every five years, to determine international rates and regulations.

Again, as with internal post, the special place of books and publications is recognized by the inclusion in the international service of an 'overseas printed paper rate', usually one rate for commercial printed matter such as catalogues, etc. and a 'reduced rate' for books, publications, music and so forth. Under UPU regulations member countries are permitted to operate the reduced printed paper rate at 50 per cent of their full printed paper rate but few, if any, countries do this. The rate is usually closer to 60 per cent or 70 per cent of the full rate.

Apart from books posted singly or in small parcels, there is generally a special 'bulk-bag' service for printed papers, which enables larger consignments, up to 66 lb (30 kg), to be carried in a postal bag at a slightly more favourable rate than individual parcels.

Following the last UPU Congress, in Tokyo in 1969, a number of changes in rates and regulations became operative early in 1971 and have added substantially to the cost of sending books to overseas customers by post. Prior to the recent increases the cost of sending an 11 lb (5 kg) package of books from, for example, the United Kingdom to an overseas customer was around $1.32, and this charge represented something in the region of 7½ per cent of the average published price. The current charge for the same package is approximately $1.44—a 9 per cent increase. On a smaller package, say 2 lb (approximately 1 kg), the increase is more marked: from 24 cents to 36 cents—50 per cent increase. The rates operated by other countries are very similar.

The rate for bulk bags has been increased by 20 per cent. Additionally, the Tokyo congress decided to prohibit the multi-address bulk bag—that is, the bag containing a number of packages destined for different consignees in the area of delivery—so that the bulk bag can now be used only for one consignment for one customer. All other consignments must be sent as individual packages and, as noted above, the smaller the package the higher the rate of increased postage. These developments are bound to be reflected in the selling price of imported books.

Air freight

Air freight for transporting books is relatively new and comparatively little used, for two reasons: the heavy weight and low price of many books make it uneconomic, and only in recent years have airlines ceased to regard freight as something put into spare space on an aircraft not required for passengers.

From the beginning, however, the airlines—like postal administrations—have offered concessionary rates for the carriage of publications, $66^2/_3$ per cent of the standard 45 kg rate between Europe and the British Isles and 50 per cent of that rate outside Europe, for example. In general, however, the basic rate has been so high that these concessions have not been adequate. Recently special rates introduced on certain specific routes have made the use of air freight for books a more viable proposition, although still more expensive than the conventional methods of sea freight or post.

There is a special rate of 38 cents per kg (minimum of 1,000 kg) between London and Montreal or New York and a rate of 80 cents per kg (minimum 200 kg) between London and Mexico City. There is also a rate of 80 cents per kg between Madrid and Mexico City.

These rates are basic charges and, in the case of Canada, the through rate—warehouse to warehouse—is in the region of 55 cents per kg. This compares with approximately 36 cents per kg for post, but to some extent the additional cost can be justified by the far greater speed and certainty of delivery on a specified date.

As air freight develops, and particularly as containerization becomes more generally adopted, it is hoped that this method of dispatch will become more widely used. Because of their shape, books pack well and occupy less cubic capacity than many other items, and in return for regular tonnage of easily handled cargo the carriers may well be persuaded to reduce their rates so that air freight will become economically possible. The principal objective of any method of dispatch is to get the book to the reader in mint condition as quickly as possible, and as cheaply as possible. Inflated selling prices caused by high dispatch costs must be avoided.

So far as developing countries are concerned, their prime needs are for easy import facilities at the lowest cost possible, and for the cheapest possible methods of internal distribution. Here again, governments have a particular responsibility if their people's needs are to be met.

CHAPTER 5

Copyright

What is copyright?

The word 'copyright' is in fact a misnomer. It derives from the first national copyright Act, passed in England in 1709 and known as the Statute of Anne. It was this Act which first gave authors the exclusive right to print or authorize the printing of their works. It was solely concerned with the making (or printing) of copies because prior to 1709 the right to print copies had been governed first by the Star Chamber, and subsequently by the Stationers' Company; the law was concerned with nothing else, and although subsequent Acts gradually broadened the range of authors' exclusive rights, the word 'copyright' stuck.

The French *droit d'auteur*, meaning 'the author's right' is far more appropriate. Copyright gives authors and other creative artists, such as musicians, painters, sculptors, composers, choreographers, architects and so on the exclusive right to authorize the use of their work in any way. Copyright is thus a very important aspect of the book hunger with which this book is concerned.

Since we are here primarily concerned with books we need not consider copyright in relation to other forms of reproduction, performance, recording and so on, although it need be noted that these other areas of reproduction are of particular importance in their respective fields.

COPYRIGHT

The purpose of copyright

Copyright has the effect of giving creative works (which means, of course, all works of the mind, not only scientific and technical but also those of the imagination) the quality of property that can be bought or hired. It was invented by a society for two main reasons: first, so that the author could control the uses made of his work and therefore be able to demand a reward for such use; and second, so that society should be enabled to have access to his work.

Article 27 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations on 10 December 1948, stated two fundamental premises:

(1) Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits.

(2) Everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author.

It is the task of copyright laws to strike the right balance between these two considerations.

Copyright is not an absolute right. Because society creates the conditions within which authors work, society not unreasonably expects to have the right to make limited uses of an author's work without needing his prior permission. Thus the copyright laws of most lands allow 'fair use', which is to say, for example, that small extracts from copyright works may be quoted for purposes of criticism or review or copied for purposes of private study or research.

On the other hand, because society wishes to encourage the author to publish his work so that it is generally available, society ensures that through copyright legislation the author has sufficient exclusivity of right to enable him to give part of that exclusivity to a publisher who will thus feel justified in investing his time and money in putting the work into print and thus making it available to the public. If the publisher had no guarantee that a competitor could not also publish the same work, at the same time, he would not invest his time and experience in it. The author's right is thus essential if publication is to be secured and society given the opportunity of access which it desires.

As individual nations saw the need to protect their authors so that their works could be published for the benefit of all, so in time did they see the need for international copyright protection which would make the works of authors of different nations available to an international society. This was an important concept in the spread of civilization.

International copyright

Following England's 1709 Statute of Anne, Denmark introduced a copyright law in 1741, and the newly independent North American republic of the United States of America followed suit in 1790. France, following the revolution of 1789, also provided copyright protection for authors, and during the following century other European countries followed suit.

The first important international treaties on copyright were concluded by France with the United Kingdom and with Portugal in 1851. Other bilateral agreements followed in rapid succession until a multilateral convention was made under the aegis of the International Literary and Artistic Association founded by Victor Hugo. These European attempts at internationality were made against the background of increasing 'piracy', but, finally, in 1886, the Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works was established.

There were fourteen founder members of the Berne Union, although, at that time, the United Kingdom, which was one of them, also signed on behalf of Australia, Canada, India, New Zealand and South Africa.

By the time of the sixth revision of the convention, in Brussels in 1948, there were thirty-four member countries, and today there are some sixty member countries.

The Berne Convention was essentially a European concept. With the passage of years its principles were adopted by former colonies of the European metropolitan powers (principally, the United Kingdom, France and Spain), but the new republics of the Americas preferred not to look towards Europe and developed their own copyright laws within a series of Pan-American copyright conventions.

The principal difference between the European and American concepts of copyright was that in Europe copyright existed because a work existed. In the United States and most of Latin America copyright was granted by the State in published works only if they were registered. This is still largely the case.

Thanks to the initiative of Unesco, an attempt was made in 1952 to link the European and American concepts by the introduction of the Universal Copyright Convention. UCC became effective in September 1955, at which time the necessary twelve countries had ratified it. Today there are more than fifty members of UCC. Some thirty-five countries are members of both Berne and UCC.

The bridge

Long before UCC was proposed, both Europe and the Americas had had a long tradition of authorship and well-established publishing industries. It was therefore considered unnecessary, in linking two essentially similar cultures, to include in UCC more than the minimum standards of copyright protection, so that the first version of the convention did little more than require that signatory countries should protect foreign works in the same way as they did those of their own nationals.

There were only two specific measures of protection in the convention: a minimum term of not less than twenty-five years from first publication (which followed the American 'registration' system, except that a new universal form of copyright notice in books was introduced to make registration unnecessary, the symbol © followed by the name of the copyright proprietor and the year of first publication), and an exclusive right of translation limited to seven years from first publication.

After that initial seven years member governments were to be free to grant compulsory licences for translations into their own national language or languages in cases where the copyright proprietor himself had failed or declined to authorize such a translation, but subject to a just compensation to the author being made and 'conforming to international standards'. Such compulsory licences were to be 'non-exclusive', so that, in theory at least, more than one applicant could be granted such a licence. There is no record of a single licence having been granted by any country in the first sixteen years of the convention's life.

Because, however, members of the Berne Convention were aware that the absence of specific levels of protection in UCC might undermine Berne standards, the member countries signing UCC stipulated (by an appendix Declaration to Article XVII, generally known as the 'Safeguard Clause') that if any member of UCC withdrew from Berne, then the other members of Berne would deny such a country protection even under UCC itself. By 1955 the Berne Convention had been in existence for some sixty-five years, and its members did not wish to find their sophisticated international system of copyright diluted by the withdrawal of countries which saw in UCC the possibility of providing a lesser degree of protection.

Reservations

Because governments are obliged to maintain their domestic sovereignty it is common for them in international agreements to reserve certain autonomous rights. An international convention which gave other countries the right to override the authority of a domestic government in its own country would be totally unacceptable. Governments, rightly, will not accept that other governments know better than they what they are elected or appointed to do. Thus, when entering a new convention, while a government may well undertake to do certain things by way of protecting foreign interests, it may at the same time reserve the right to continue particular domestic practices which it regards as desirable, even though it may not in the event choose to continue practices which it recognizes to be contrary to the general intentions of the new convention.

The early versions of the Berne Convention (established in 1886, completed at Paris in 1896 and first revised at Berlin in 1908) gave member governments the right to make certain reservations. These included, for example, from 1896 onwards, the right to allow foreign authors' exclusive right of translation to fall into the public domain if no translation had been authorized within ten years of first publication of a work. After that anyone in a country making this reservation was free to publish a translation without needing the author's permission or having to pay him any royalties.

Subsequent versions of the convention re-enacted the right of States which had made such a reservation to retain it; and States newly adhering to the convention were given the right to make similar reservations. It is significant that none of the fourteen founders members, who initially made a reservation in respect of translation rights, currently does so.

Over the years they each abandoned the reservation because it became apparent that when it was open to everyone to make a translation more than one publisher might elect to do so, and so in the end the publishers lost money. When two or three translations appeared virtually simultaneously there was unlikely to be enough readers to make any one of them economically viable. The consequence of this was that the publishers became nervous of publishing translations in the public domain, and in the end urged their governments to abandon this reservation so that licences to publish translations could be negotiated with the author and so that the publisher of the translation was given that security against competition which, as mentioned earlier, is essential if society is to have access to new works, including new translations.

Other reservations cover 'fair use' provisions, quotations in newspapers and for broadcasts, certain kinds of educational use, and so on.

It will be interesting shortly to compare the early Berne translation rights reservation with that of UCC, and also the educational needs of developing countries which were contained in the Stockholm Protocol of 1967.

Reservations that have proved acceptable to developed and developing countries alike were incorporated in the revised texts of the Berne and Universal Copyright Conventions concluded in Paris in July 1971.

Developing countries

The expression 'developing countries' was not in common use when UCC was introduced in 1952. As noted earlier, UCC was a bridge between Europe and the Americas. 'Underdeveloped countries' were then beginning to be referred to as 'emergent nations'. The political philosophy which gave priority to raising standards in underdeveloped countries was only just being conceived.

The responsibility of developed countries to help others emerged but slowly, notwithstanding the Declaration of Human Rights. The concept was one thing: giving it effect was another.

The heavy drain on the resources of most developed countries caused by the Second World War inevitably made economic possibilities lag behind political ideals. Nevertheless, in the decade following 1945 a great many countries formerly dependent upon European metropolitan control became independent, even though still requiring economic assistance.

International commitments

So far as copyright is concerned, many developing countries in membership of the Berne Union took the view that they were committed to Berne standards only because of undertakings given on their behalf by former centres of empire. They did not object to the principles, but, rather, to the fact that they had had no opportunity to make reservations of the kind which the founder members of Berne had prescribed for themselves. Instead, they inherited standards to which their former masters had graduated but which they themselves had had not the economic means to achieve.

Some developing countries would have preferred the lower (because they were not specified) standards of UCC, but could not take advantage of them because of the 'Safeguard Clause'.

Their resentment at being barred from subscribing to UCC while being obliged to observe the standards of Berne finally focused in a conference of African States held in Brazzaville (People's Republic of the Congo) in 1963 where, under the aegis of Unesco and the Berne Union, the developing countries concerned drafted what a year later became known as the African 'Model' Copyright Law which, subsequently, became the basis for national legislation in Zambia, Malawi, Uganda, Kenya and other countries. A similar 'Model' was introduced at a seminar held in Delhi in January 1967, and was subsequently adopted by Malaysia and other Asian countries.

The 'Models' gave governments the right to limit copyright in various ways. Particularly in areas which affected education. The exclusive rights on which copyright had originally been based in Europe were limited, so that governments were free to authorize educational and library uses of an author's work without his authority or compensation to him. It is significant, perhaps, that no country which adopted a law based upon these 'Models' has in fact usurped authors' rights, even though they could legally have done so. The new laws demonstrated that the European concept was no longer acceptable, but the developing countries concerned nevertheless still recognized that the purpose of copyright was to encourage authorship for the benefit of society, and so there was, in effect, an 'armed truce' between what the developing countries described as the 'exporting' copyright countries and the 'importing' copyright countries (i.e. themselves).

The Stockholm Protocol

This political antagonism found expression in the Stockholm revision of the Berne Convention in June 1967, when the revised text incorporated the Protocol Regarding Developing Countries, which restricted copyright in the following ways:

1. The term of copyright was limited to the life of the author and twenty-five years thereafter (compared with the *post mortem* fifty years formerly required by Berne).
2. The period within which an author should have the exclusive right to authorize a translation of his work into the language or languages of a developing country should be limited to three years, compulsory licences being permitted thereafter.
3. The author's exclusive right to license reprints of his work in the original language should also be limited to three years from first publication.
4. The copyright in any work required 'exclusively for teaching, study and research in all fields of education' could be 'restricted' (which some interpreted as meaning that it could be restricted completely if the government of the developing country concerned so wished).
5. Editions produced under categories 2, 3 and 4 above should be

available for export to any other developing countries having similar provisions in their domestic laws.

The protocol provided that for categories 2 and 3 the author should be paid 'a just compensation', although for category 4 he was entitled only to 'a compensation which conforms to standards of payments made to national authors'. It was because authors of educational works, particularly in developing countries, are commonly teachers, and therefore liable to write books as part of their contract of employment in return for a salary, that this provision of the protocol, in particular, proved totally unacceptable to developed countries. There was no lack of sympathy for the educational needs of developing countries, but there was concern for the right of the original author to benefit from the use of his work.

Since the protocol was an integral part of the Stockholm Act of the Berne Convention, the new text of the convention was never given effect. Because, apart from the protocol, the Stockholm text was the best ever produced by Berne, the unwillingness of developed countries to adopt it was a matter of regret for them, too. They wanted the body of the convention but could not adopt it without abandoning what they conceived as essential principles of authors' rights.

After Stockholm

It was clear, after Stockholm, that the Protocol Regarding Developing Countries would never be given the assent of developed countries and would consequently be useless to developing countries. Attention was accordingly focused on the 'Safeguard Clause' of UCC which, on the surface, appeared to prevent developing countries 'escaping' from Berne into UCC where the wind was popularly supposed to have been tempered for the shorn lamb.

In fact, as we have seen, it was not the intention of UCC to provide a low level of protection: the Universal Convention was drafted on the assumption of an existing transatlantic high level of protection which need not be spelled out. In the aftermath of Stockholm, however, these were distinctions which tended to be overlooked. The realities of current international discontent were more important. It was thus that the governing committees of Berne and UCC set up a joint study group to find a way out of the impasse.

The Washington recommendations

The International Copyright Joint Study Group thus set up met in Washington towards the end of 1969 and all present recognized (although some more reluctantly than others) that the Stockholm Protocol was never going to become effective. The Joint Study Group therefore recommended a compromise under which the 'Safeguard Clause' should be removed from UCC so far as developing countries were concerned, and that such countries in membership of the Berne Union would be allowed to remain in membership of Berne but to apply UCC as the basis of their relationship with other Berne members.

The group also recommended that the protocol should be detached from the Stockholm Act of the Berne Convention provided France, Spain, the United Kingdom and the United States all agreed to concessions for developing countries in UCC.

The Washington recommendations were accepted by the two governing committees of Berne and UCC which then had a series of simultaneous meetings designed to work out just what these concessions should be.

Finally, after protracted bargaining between governmental representatives of developing and developed countries, a formula was agreed in September 1970 and given effect at the revision conferences of Berne and UCC which took place concurrently at Unesco Headquarters in Paris in July 1971.

The new conventions

As mentioned earlier, the original text of UCC made little specific reference to the rights of authors which contracting governments were expected to protect. Part of the Washington recommendations which was finally incorporated in the Paris Act of UCC put into the convention a requirement that contracting States should 'provide for the adequate and effective protection of authors and other copyright proprietors. . .', in particular 'the basic rights ensuring the author's economic interests, including the exclusive right to authorize reproduction by any means, public performance and broadcasting'. This requirement was naturally qualified so that States which do not recognize these basic rights absolutely may, if they wish, continue to make such reservations as are appropriate to their domestic circumstances, provided, of course, that in making such exceptions they should not act contrary to the spirit and provisions of the new convention.

The 'Safeguard Clause' was suspended so far as developing countries are concerned, but retained for developed countries in membership of both Berne and UCC. It remains to be seen whether developing countries already in membership of Berne will wish to withdraw and abide solely by the rules of UCC, but there is no reason to expect an exodus because the concessions to developing countries, originating from the Stockholm Protocol, are now included in both the conventions.

Translation rights

It is obvious that translations of literary works represent one of the main means of communication between nations without a common language. This is particularly important in the field of education where, the developing countries had argued, they had a need to bring out translations quickly.

The economics of publishing are such that a new book must always to some extent be something of a gamble. However worthy its subject or skilful its writing, a new school book, for example, may take several years to establish itself. There is constant competition from other works in the same field, and this competition is good for education. It ensures that the best books prevail. If, therefore, such a new book begins to gain ground in a developing country (which it cannot do unless it is meeting a real need) it is possible that a very early translation will so reduce sales of the original edition there that the entire project might founder. This, of course, may be disadvantageous not only to the developing country in question, but also to the country for which the edition was originally published. The difference in price between an edition of, say, 3,000 copies and one of 50,000 copies can be quite considerable.

It was against this economic background that a formula emerged under which compulsory licences should be available in developing countries only for the purpose of teaching, scholarship or research and that such licences might not be granted sooner than three years after first publication when the translation was into a 'world' language (such as English, French or Spanish) although such licences might be granted after only one year from first publication where the language of translation was local.

Since the developing countries' need was for translations to advance their educational development, they accepted that no copies produced under a compulsory licence should be available for export to any other country.

Compulsory licences will, as in the case of translations previously permitted after the ten-year period provided by the original UCC, be 'non-exclusive'.

Reprints

Compulsory licences for the reproduction of works in their original language are now permitted for works required 'in connexion with systematic instructional activities' after a period from first publication which depends upon the kind of work it is.

For works of the natural and physical sciences, including mathematics, and of technology, the period is three years. For works of fiction, poetry, drama and music, and for art books, the period is seven years. For all other works the period is five years from first publication.

Audio-visual fixations

The new conventions also provide that audio-visual fixations may be reproduced under compulsory licences in developing countries on the same conditions as attach to reprints of literary works or translations of such works.

Similarly, works required for educational broadcasts in developing countries may now be licensed compulsorily in cases where permission cannot be obtained or is refused. It will be recalled that the basis of compulsory licensing, as in the case of the original UCC so far as translations were concerned, is that the person requiring a licence must first have applied to the copyright proprietor for permission, and only where he is refused, or cannot trace the proprietor, may he be given a compulsory licence. Even then, as in the original UCC, such an applicant must still post copies of his original application to the publisher whose work is named on the publication in question, as well as to the authorities or organizations specified in the conventions.

In other words, no copyright proprietor should find his works licensed compulsorily without his having prior notice of the fact.

General effect

The common concern of both developing and developed countries throughout these protracted negotiations has been to preserve copyright. As was said at the beginning of this chapter, copyright is the peculiar property of the author and the thing which enables him to profit as he should from the contribution he makes to society through his work. All governments wish to encourage the creation of new literary and artistic works, and this is affirmed in the new conventions by the requirement that even where a compulsory licence has to be granted the author will nevertheless be paid a proper compensation according to the royalty levels commonly applying between his country and that of the developing country where the licence is granted.

Because copyright proprietors in developed countries will have adequate notice when a publisher in a developing country requires a translation or reprint licence, the probability is that the effect of the new conventions will be to ensure that free negotiation takes place between the applicant and the proprietor (with the knowledge that compulsory licensing is available if agreement cannot be reached), so that compulsory licensing may in the future be no more frequent than it was in the first sixteen years of UCC in respect of translations.

Copyright will thus continue to protect the interests of authors and also to guarantee to society that access to new works which the laws of copyright are designed to provoke.

Clearing-houses

To assist publishers in developing countries who may have difficulty in tracing copyright proprietors in developed countries, from whom they may wish to seek translation or reprint rights, Unesco, acting upon the Washington

Recommendation, in 1971 set up within its Paris Headquarters an International Copyright Information Centre. The main functions of the centre are:

1. To collect copyright information on books that can be made available to developing countries on terms as favourable to them as possible.
2. To arrange for the transfer to developing countries of rights ceded by copyright holders.
3. To help in the development of simple model forms of contracts for translation, reprint and other rights required by developing countries.
4. To study ways and means of securing copyright and other rights where foreign currency is not available.
5. To promote arrangements for the adaptation and publication of works, particularly those of a technical and educational nature.

In May 1971, as a first step, Unesco invited Member States to give particulars of any reproduction, translation or adaptation rights they might require, giving priority to scientific and technical books, including textbooks, in view of their importance for economic development. At the same time Member States which were prepared to offer copyright concessions or facilities were also asked to give Unesco particulars.

National clearing-houses, designed to assist publishers in developing countries in securing translation and reprint rights in cases where they encounter difficulty, have been set up by the publishers' organizations in France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States. These clearing-houses also act as agents for the Unesco International Copyright Information Centre where this seems appropriate.

Royalties

Although the total cost to developing countries of royalties on licences for reprints or translations represents only a minute proportion of national expenditure, foreign currency is often precious, and so Unesco is concerned to find ways of assisting in cases where difficulty arises. Attempts are also being made to obtain assistance from those Member States whose copyright works are most sought after. Such States generally offer aid to developing countries in a variety of forms, and it might be that where currency for royalties is not readily available, it might be found from aid money.

CHAPTER 6

Reading habits

Reading habits are harder to study than other habits. Only the physical act of reading is accessible to direct observation, not the mental act which it appears to denote but frequently does not. Statistics tell us the amount of printed material consumed, the rate at which it is consumed, and by whom, but material consumed is not necessarily read. Books sometimes are bought merely for decoration. Surveys yield only subjective evidence which is, more often than not, a tissue of illusions.

If the problem is attacked on several fronts simultaneously and various methods combined, some idea of the place which reading occupies in the life of this or that group of individuals or in the system of communication of this or that social or intellectual sphere may possibly be gained, but one can never be sure that the same phenomenon is involved in every case. Reading is not in fact a simple phenomenon, but comprises countless different forms.

Reading and the different forms it can take

At first sight it would seem that reading could be defined as the act of deciphering a piece of writing. This tells us little. The deciphering may take place at very different levels and involve one or more of the many codes which make up a text. When we recognize letters with their exact values and combine them into pronounceable words, without understanding the language, are we reading? On the other hand, do we refuse to consider that a small child is reading when he gropes his way through a book, with the help of the illustrations, identifying points in a story which he knows by heart by the general look of the words? In one case the decoding of the signs does not reach the meaning, in the other the meaning is perceived without decoding the signs.

It would doubtless be more correct to define reading as a complete act of communication. It would then appear as the counterpart of writing. The writer conceives a project which is both thought and expression and which is elaborated in a single operation embracing at once the conception of ideas, images and arguments and the production of word-objects and sentence-objects. At the end of this process of elaboration is coded the text which the printed document fixes and authenticates. This text is only a sample of the immense wealth of material constituted by the author's personal experience. It is nevertheless the part of his conception through which the author seeks to communicate his thoughts.

Reading is the reconstruction of a new product by the reader on the basis of this sample. As such, it is another experience, characterized by the clash between the constraints resulting from the text and the reader's own predispositions. The stronger and more determining the constraints, the more 'functional' is the text and the less the margin left to the reader's initiative: as, for example, in didactic, technical or scientific works. The more latitude the reader is given to exercise his predispositions, the more 'literary' is the text.

Only reading to oneself is considered for the purpose of this discussion to be reading in the full sense of the word. It is silent reading which mobilizes all the reader's abilities and is a creative activity in the same sense as writing.

Nevertheless a study of reading habits cannot be confined to silent reading. This would be to leave out of account an integral part of the reading phenomenon and to underestimate its social aspects. In the act of reading the silent reader is theoretically alone; in reality he is caught up in the immense web of communication spun around him by society. This is particularly true today when life is lived against the background of the all-pervading audio-visual media, but it was true even when the written word formed a means of communication reserved for an élite, although, of course, communication took place mainly by other means—speech or gesture.

Communication through the spoken word or through gesture has very different characteristics from communication through writing. The intentions of a speaker or an actor are much more explicit and determining than those of a writer. With direct communications of the former kind which do not pass through any mechanical medium, the recipient—listener or spectator—can, unlike the reader, give immediate reply and show his reactions. Furthermore, the reconstruction of what is heard or seen is rarely a solitary act; usually it takes place in a community setting and interaction is manifold and complex.

For this reason communication through the spoken word and through gesture has always taken over where communication through writing left off. This was already true of the reading aloud practised in the Roman auditoria, and it is increasingly true in our own time when contact with a work may even mean 'reading' it on the television screen. This is not reading proper, but such phenomena form as it were an extension of reading and give it its true social dimensions. Whether in a society where the written word, restricted to a privileged group, is conveyed by voice and gesture to the population at large, or in a more sophisticated situation, where everyone is a reader but also a listener and a spectator, reading cannot be considered independently of the communication system as a whole.

Most surveys on reading attempt to determine the volume and nature of the books read by a population, and the amount of time and money it spends on them. Although very interesting statistical results can be obtained by this method, they are difficult to use, for it is soon seen that they do not lend themselves to generalization.

Wilbur Schramm, in *Mass Media and National Development*,[1] describes two families in developing countries. One family is African. Communications are intense within the family group, but it seems to be totally unaware of what is happening just a few miles away. One of the children has been to school, but from lack of practice he has forgotten how to read and write, for there are no newspapers or books in the society in which he lives. The other family is Asian. Its links with the outside world are more numerous and long-standing, but the whole social structure and the traditional psychology of the elders prevent any real exchanges of ideas and knowledge taking place with this outside world, of which the family is well aware and, at the same time, apprehensive. Experience evolves according to an ancient wisdom that has used written expression for centuries, not to disseminate thought, but to conserve it.

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[1] Paris, Unesco, 1964.

What meaning can reading have in these two families? In the former, literacy teaching and schooling can lead up blind alleys. It is possible to teach members of this family to decipher a text, but they will not actually read until they feel the need for communication, that is, until there is a desire for change. In so far as reading represents an approach to others, a re-creation of material offered by others, it represents a quest for something new. If it is to have meaning, there must be a will to innovate. In the case of the African family this may occur as a result of practical education in agricultural techniques, and the first steps may come from listening to a crackling old wireless set rather than sitting over a book or newspaper.

In the Asian family, too, it is the will to innovate that must motivate the desire to read. But here it is more likely to lead to a clash between generations, with politics entering into the picture. Whether or not written communication is actually used will then depend largely on opinion trends, the steps taken by the authorities and the enterprise shown by producers and distributors at the national and regional levels.

In both cases reading will come into its own eventually, for only reading makes it possible to obtain information at will and thus establish attitudes and consolidate new ways of thinking and behaving. But the means by which these new ways of thinking and behaving are established differ greatly from one situation to another and so, too, do the ways in which reading becomes a part of social life.

Understandably, then, the 'reading habit', which does not mean the same thing even in the two cases considered above, has still a different meaning for a city-dweller in a highly developed country reared from infancy in and by means of the written word, and so accustomed to referring to it for information that he is sometimes even unaware of doing so. Since it is no longer part of a vital process or motivated by a social or psychological need, reading in a consumer society becomes, as Richart Hoggart shows in *The Uses of Literacy* (London, 1957), a marginal activity, a means rather than an end in itself.

In other words, the decision whether to read or not has a different context for a man living in a world where reading has no place, no purpose, no permanent support, than it has for a man involved, be it unwittingly, in the reading of a huge variety of materials—newspapers, publicity, printed forms, instructions—among which books are but one item.

Those who can read but do not

According to a survey conducted in Italy in 1962, out of 400 persons of all social strata 31 had never read a book and 129 no longer read books; in other words, 40 per cent were non-readers. Another survey carried out among 2,277 persons in Hungary in 1964 showed that 39.4 per cent were non-readers. In 1967, the results of a survey conducted in France by the Institut Français d'Opinion Publique (IFOP) showed 53 per cent non-readers in an adult population of 6,865. However, if differences in criteria and methods are taken into account, this percentage, which shocked French opinion at the time, is not in contradiction with results obtained elsewhere. Almost certainly, even in the most highly developed countries, a fairly large proportion of those who are able to read never read books, or rarely do so. Paradoxically, this proportion is probably larger in the developed countries, where schooling for all has made learning to read an obligation, than in countries where progress in development is in fact measured in terms of the literacy rate and those who can read are very highly motivated to do so. In the Netherlands, where reading is very widespread, a survey in 1960 indicated that 40 per cent of the subjects interviewed did not like reading. In East Pakistan, on the contrary, a sample survey made in 1963–64 among 145 families of government employees of all levels revealed only 53 non-readers out of a total of 488 persons over the age of 12, that is, barely 10.9 per cent.

The percentage of non-readers would probably be higher still if the investigation were confined to adults over school age. Lack of interest in reading is not so common in youth. Two surveys on reading among young recruits, one conducted in Switzerland, the other in France in 1962–63, gave very similar and remarkably low percentages of non-readers: 7 per cent in Switzerland, 8.9 per cent in France. Furthermore, the IFOP survey mentioned earlier showed that in the 15–19 age bracket the proportion of non-readers was only 18 per cent.

This is confirmed by the Italian survey also mentioned earlier. Out of 400 persons interviewed, 160 were non-readers, but whereas 31 said that they had never been interested in reading, most said that they had lost the habit. The latter had therefore been readers when they were young. And the 31 who had never read even as youngsters represent only 7.75 per cent of the sample.

The problem, then, is one that arises in adult life, particularly among young adults who are most apt to lose their reading skills through lack of practice. This is a general phenomenon. The cultural activity of childhood and adolescence, supported by the educational system, is suddenly interrupted when schooling comes to an end and often abandoned for lack of another form of support. Lifelong education is still in its infancy and, of course, can supply only some of the answers. The problem of non-readers is merely one manifestation of the difficulties met by young adults in finding their place in society. It is one of the more serious ones, but it must be considered as a part of the whole complex of social conditions.

The age at which reading skills tend to be lost varies; the less schooling received, the earlier it is. In the survey of young French recruits the proportion of non-readers was 12.9 per cent among those who had left school more than seven years before, whereas there were no non-readers among those who had left school less than two years before or were continuing their studies. Students are by far the most assiduous readers everywhere, but once their studies are completed they may well be in danger of becoming non-readers in their turn. There are, in fact, indications that persons in senior positions who are also university graduates read less than middle-grade personnel. This is probably because senior personnel are constantly subjected to the pressures of modern life, whereas the middle-levels are usually provided with statutory leisure time by social legislation.

However, the character of reading habits has more remote causes, going right back to the child's pre-school years. It is probably then that fundamental attitudes towards books are formed. The child who meets books for the first time when he goes to school tends to associate reading with the school situation, especially if no reading is done in the home. If school work is difficult or unrewarding, the child may come to dislike reading and drop it altogether once he leaves school. Ideally, therefore, books should become part of a child's life, of his play and everyday activities, even before he starts school.

Once schooling is over, the obstacles to reading increase. Though of many different kinds, they can be summed up under three heads: first, physical, psychological or social obstacles originating in the reader himself; second, inadequacies in book production and distribution machinery; third, those inherent in the actual reading materials and their purpose.

Among obstacles of the first type lack of time is generally the chief excuse given for not reading. Often it simply conceals a deeper, more pervasive aversion, although a survey carried out in the Federal Republic of Germany in 1964 did show a direct correlation between time available and reading attitudes.

It is important to take the work–leisure ratio into account in so far as fatigue is one of the most frequent reasons given for not reading. Here, too, caution is required. Although the physical tiredness of the manual worker and the mental exhaustion of the executive are indeed obstacles to the effort which the simplest reading demands, it has been found that a great many people (mainly those engaged in intellectual work) say both that they do not read much because they are tired and also that they read for relaxation.

It appears, then, that a certain margin of 'availability' is necessary for reading and that it depends not only on working hours and working conditions but on the reader's situation generally: housing conditions, home environment, economic level, tenure of employment and so on. Nor is this availability in itself enough.

The disadvantages stemming from the tendency to associate books with school work are just one example of the many social stereotypes which may prevent people from reading. The mistrust, and hence disdain, once felt for an occupation which did not make any call on what were traditionally regarded as virile qualities may have been attenuated, toned down, assumed different forms, but none the less remain latent in many circles. Other cultural stereotypes, of more recent date, tend to set value on reading, but they do not always succeed in profoundly changing the old attitudes. Persons interviewed in surveys generally recognize that reading is a good thing, reading has its uses, reading is necessary, but they are inclined to regard themselves as exceptions—even if they sometimes also blame themselves—on the ground that they have no time, have other things to do, or simply give preference to other activities. Hardly anyone says now that reading is good for women, but the attitude that reading is good for other people, with a hint of hostility—those who have nothing better to do—is widespread.

Now, as all reading is in a sense active, no one reads unless he wants to. Despite the progress and spread of education in the developed countries, books are still alien to the vast majority of people. In other words, the technical progress of barely five centuries which, since the invention and development of printing, has made possible the proliferation of books, has not been followed by comparable progress in the evolution of mental attitudes. In our 'literate' societies, 'pre-literate' attitudes prevail. In part, the hold of the audio-visual media is due to the fact, not that they are 'modern', but rather that they appeal to earlier, not entirely forgotten ways. This can lead to an enhancement of knowledge, on condition that the habit of reading can be grafted on to this return to a remote past, so as to play its part alongside these regressive habits. If this is true of countries with an old written culture, it is even truer of emerging countries which have gone straight to the audio-visual media.

A change of attitudes presupposes political and social action, consideration of which lies outside the scope of this book. It must however be pointed out that the place of reading in a society, and the role it can and should play, depend first and foremost on the structures of the society and the institutions which reflect them. Books are alien only in so far as some people are alien to others.

Even so, if this development is to take place—and there are strong indications on various sides that it will—the fact remains that we must prepare for it and develop the know-how to overcome technical obstacles to reading. In the light of the obstacles arising from the book production and distribution system and those inherent in the content and purpose of books, two questions must be asked: How can the book be brought to the reader? And how can the reader be brought to the book?

How can the book be brought to the reader? Until fairly recently books were considered almost exclusively as a luxury product, or at least as consumer goods designed for an affluent minority.

Persons interviewed in surveys frequently reply that they do not purchase books because of the cost. As with the excuse of having no time to read, this may often be a pretext, but it also is valid in a great many cases. Furthermore, the fact that it is put forward reflects an earlier state of affairs which continues to have repercussions down to the present day.

Though it is no longer true that the average price of a novel represents from forty to fifty times a workman's hourly wage, as it did at the beginning of the nineteenth century in western Europe, a publication issued in a standard hard-cover edition does commonly represent four or five times the hourly wage of a semi-skilled workman. First in eighteenth-century England, then more recently on the continent, cheap editions began to appear, developing concurrently with the press and superseding the literature peddled from door to door (though in fact often distributed by the same means). This popular production should not be underestimated: it played an essential part in the process of social advancement in nineteenth-century Europe. However, it remained outside the main current. It was unattractive in appearance and scarcely encouraged reading. The contents, with a few brilliant exceptions, were stereotyped, being at best classics which had already been published a hundred times over. These cheap books, mass-produced, did not enter the economic circuit of the publishing industry which catered for the cultivated public and which alone could afford innovation and research.

As industrial society evolved, attempts were made in France, Germany and the United Kingdom to bring books into line with the new economic and aesthetic requirements. The success of pocket books in the 1930s may be regarded as the first unmitigated success in this field: good-quality books, well designed and produced, twenty times cheaper than the same books in a standard edition.

The same formula tested in the United Kingdom and Germany was to be systematically applied and developed in the United States of America, whose tremendous industrial power transformed the movement into a veritable revolution, which quickly spread to the other book-producing countries. In the space of about twenty years easily readable books on an unlimited variety of subjects, costing in most cases little more than what can be earned in an hour, were to be found all over the world. The socialist countries, having followed parallel lines of approach to arrive at very similar solutions, distribute books in ever-increasing quantities at remarkably low prices. The developing countries have also been affected by this trend, though owing to the limited reading public of the different linguistic groups, they offer less favourable conditions for the development of cheap paperback editions, which call for large print runs. However, in India for example, it has been possible to produce paperback series in Hindi selling at one rupee per volume and a recent edition involved 500,000 copies.

The price problem is tied up with the distribution problem, and therein lies the real difficulty. Cheap books are not practicable without mass distribution, comparable in scale and effect with that of the mass media, and cutting across social and economic barriers.

Standard editions, on the other hand, have long been distributed by a network appropriate to the socio-cultural framework. Big bookshops, supported by, and therefore designed to serve, a cultivated minority are generally located in the commercial centres of towns in areas frequented more rarely by the workers or the peasants. These classes were once catered for by the old book pedlar though, more recently, the chain-stores have begun selling reading matter, mainly newspapers and mass-circulation publications. There was also the problem of psychological remoteness. Given the choice between a proper bookshop selling books only and a store selling books along with other goods, the worker preferred the latter where he was on familiar ground. Once again, even in the sphere of distribution, the world of books was felt to be alien.

It would of course be over-optimistic to say that things have entirely changed, but there is no doubt that the book revolution is manifest in the proliferation of sales outlets in no way resembling the old bookshop system. In fact bookshops have been somewhat stimulated by this sudden expansion of the market. The book's breakthrough into everyday life has offered bookshops an opportunity to emerge from the relative social isolation of their profession and reach out to a new public.

The phenomenon was best exemplified in the United States of America, where the few thousand bookshops were overlaid by an immense chain of over 100,000 sales outlets. From there it spread, in the space of less than fifteen years, to most large producer nations, and even in Europe, where the density of bookshops per head was much higher than in the United States of America. In market-economy countries it was typified by the appearance of the book in new types of commercial establishments, particularly in chain stores. As early as 1967, when the phenomenon had still far from reached its peak, a French survey found that such establishments accounted for 12 per cent of the thrillers sold, 15 per cent of the paperbacks, 13 per cent of the children's books and 8 per cent of all new books. The traditional bookshop still accounted for the major part of distribution.

There is an equivalent of this type of distribution in socialist countries, but in all countries books have begun to be sold at places of work, places of study and centres for community activities of all kinds. For example, in Romania, in 1966, in addition to 1,200 bookshops there was a chain of about 15,600 bookstalls at places of work, including 10,000 in rural areas. Supplied by a specialized central agency and operated by sales personnel of whom half were voluntary workers, they handled 40 per cent of all book sales in Romania.

This expansion of the distribution network still has a long way to go before it opens up all the cultural wastelands untouched by books. For example, it is clear that comparatively few books are purchased in the countryside and that the larger and more prosperous the place the better it is served. This is distribution economics. Furthermore, the types of distribution just mentioned are associated with an affluent economy and form part of the so-called consumer or post-industrial society, which, understandably, is absent in the majority of developing countries.

However, there is no reason why these countries, most of which have entered four-square into the audio-visual era, should follow the same patterns as those with a long-standing book industry and trade. To arrive at mass book distribution and, as they arise, to meet the fresh needs created by literacy teaching, schooling and economic and social development, they can either make use of their own traditional channels of communication or set up new ones in line with their social and economic development. In West Africa, for instance, books often reach remote regions via the periodic markets. In Pakistan, they are often sold in the ancient widespread popular bazaar editions for which Lahore is one of the centres. In Cuba, on the other hand, impressive results have been obtained through workers' organizations and collective enterprises.

So far as developing countries are concerned in their present state of development it may be desirable to get away from the static distribution system through fixed sales outlets. Mail-order sales are expanding continuously. They have long existed in the U.S.S.R., where the system is remarkably efficient and provides that immense country with one of the most evenly developed distribution networks in the world.

Book clubs provide another pattern of distribution, as is noted elsewhere in this volume. A German survey in 1964 revealed that 35 per cent of the books bought were procured from such clubs. The United Kingdom and the United States also have leaned heavily on books clubs and mail-order distribution.

Book clubs have the advantage of constituting the beginnings of a collective framework and of providing the reader with some of the means of communication the traditional bookshop offered its 'literary' clients. Another advantage to ensue from the grouping of clients is the possibility of foreknowledge of sales, which makes for relatively large print runs and consequently low prices. At present, the clubs are fairly specialized, as regards both their members and the types of book they distribute. Scholarly, scientific books and publications on education or the arts predominate in the traditional bookshop. Thus three relatively self-contained and complementary circuits are in operation.

Book clubs and mail-order sales techniques are developing rapidly. Encyclopaedias issued in the form of 'parts' or serials ('part-publications') are becoming more and more widespread and doubtless represent an interesting turning-point in the contemporary history of books. Attempts are also being made to establish distribution networks on an international scale using the various types of existing circuits, including the traditional bookshop. Sales by mail order are feasible in most developing countries. And in Asia, various home-library plans designed to reach large numbers of readers through carefully planned publishing programmes have succeeded remarkably well.

Yet the problem of the availability of reading material cannot be reduced to sales problems alone. Ownership of books does not necessarily imply reading and, above all, reading does not necessarily depend on individual purchase of books. According to a Dutch survey made in 1960, out of 1,370 people who claimed they never bought a book for themselves, 300 borrowed regularly from various types of library and 250 from friends or relations.

All experts agree that there can be no increase in reading without a suitable system of public libraries.

This need for public libraries has long been recognized. There is the case (rare it is true) of a public library in England as early as the fifteenth century. One of the first libraries for the public was set up in Philadelphia in 1731 by Benjamin Franklin. However, not until the early nineteenth century could a general trend in that direction be observed, stimulated by the humanitarian ideals engendered by the Methodist movement, the American Revolution and the French Revolution.

During the first half of the nineteenth century public libraries were opened in all large towns in Europe and the United States of America. They were usually privately run subscription libraries, thus restricting readership to the most comfortably off among the lower middle class. The middle and upper classes bought their books.

The decrease in the cost of book production thanks to industrialization, and in particular the development of cheap printing, led to the decline of that type of library; at the same time the idea that reading should be treated as a public service took root in men's minds. As early as 1849 a local tax in New Hampshire in the United States made it possible to operate free libraries, and the following year the United Kingdom became the first country to pass an Act of Parliament that provided for libraries to be financed from public funds. The Manchester Public Library in the United Kingdom was opened in 1852, and in 1854, in the United States, the Boston Public Library which, thirty-one years later, was to become one of the first in the world to be housed in its own building, specifically designed for the purposes of public reading. In 1862, copying the American example, the French Government decided that each school should be endowed with a school library. At the same time the democratic movements, aware of the importance of reading for the dissemination of their ideas, opened popular libraries all over the country.

However, except in the United States of America and the United Kingdom where municipal libraries became quite common, thanks largely to Andrew Carnegie, the immediate effects of these innovations did not come up to the promoters' expectations. Progress was slow and there were many instances of failure or deterioration; library stocks became outdated and the numbers of readers tended to diminish mainly because the handful of enthusiastic promoters lacked sufficient support among the masses. They faced a dilemma as a result of their didactic zeal: either they must circulate books that did not come up to their ideals and standards of quality; or they must drive away readers who were mainly in search of entertainment.

Clearly, reading cannot be 'bestowed' as a favour; it cannot be implanted arbitrarily in a society in the absence of basic supporting structures or of a comprehensive socio-cultural policy to promote the conditions necessary for its development. An expert has written: 'In the English-speaking countries public libraries are developed . . . in the context of a prosperous local environment. The laws passed at a higher level are permissive, not mandatory. They merely authorize municipal authorities to establish or finance libraries. Action to promote them therefore takes place at the local level. It is inspired by the example of existing achievements; it endeavours to arouse public opinion, and seeks to win over the authorities.'

In most countries such conditions only began to be met towards the beginning of 1935, at the precise moment (and it was not a coincidence) when industrial society reached a stage where mass production of books became possible. Thus it has been mainly since the mid 1940s that public reading began to be organized throughout the world, either after the model of the English-speaking countries or based on new formulas, particularly in the socialist countries.

By definition the library was static: it was a repository. The new emphasis is on mobility: mobility of stock, constantly renewed to keep up with an ever more plentiful and varied production; mobility of individual books, no longer restricted to the reading-room but circulating among the population; mobility of the distribution centre, which has branched out and comes to meet the reader in the course of his daily life; mobility of equipment, which uses the resources of all other communication media to accompany, facilitate and prolong the constant contact between books and readers; finally, mobility of clients, who no longer belong to one social class or group of book-lovers but reflect the countless variations of a society in the throes of change.

The 'library revolution' still has a long way to go before it can compare in impact and scope with the 'book revolution'. According to a study published by Documentation Française in 1968, the number of annual loans made per head by public libraries was 9.4 in the United Kingdom, 7 in Denmark, 5.4 in the United States and 4.5 in the U.S.S.R., only 1.8 in the Federal Republic of Germany, 1.2 in Spain, 1.1 in Switzerland, 0.94 in Japan and 0.74 in France.

Remedies for this state of affairs may take various forms. Some are institutional in nature. In the first place there must be a national library service, a national repository or repositories, a national bibliography. The library as repository forms the basis of a public reading library, to the extent that it can adapt its services to the new requirements for book mobility. In most developed countries it is mainly a question of adaptation. In developing countries the constitution of national or regional library services is a high-priority task. The Meeting of Experts on Book Production and Distribution in Asia, organized by Unesco at Tokyo in 1966, put the following recommendation at the head of the list: 'An integrated plan for library development should be adopted by each country as a part of its programme for social and economic development.'

The next course of institutional action is to foster initiatives taken by private groups or public authorities in setting up book-distribution centres to meet the needs of their immediate neighbourhood. In large towns, the municipal library with branches serving districts or large complexes, supplemented by a fleet of travelling libraries, is the most widespread and apparently the most effective method. More difficult problems arise in rural areas; there are various solutions such as travelling libraries, or deposit stations with a revolving stock supplied from a local centre, but they cannot be fully effective without the assistance of a network of cultural centres, youth clubs, socio-educational centres, or alternatively religious, political and trade-union institutions, or simply the local school. Whatever the system adopted, it should be integrated as fully as possible in the life of the people. Thus, utilization of the school library to promote public reading habits is particularly effective in developing countries, as pointed out by the Meeting of Experts on Book Development in Africa, organized by Unesco at Accra in 1968. These principles were described in the earlier section dealing with distribution.

A further reason for associating public libraries with school libraries is that young people are among the best and most faithful customers of public libraries. In libraries which provide a young people's department, it is not unusual for the young people to constitute 30 to 40 per cent of the total readership. Indeed, more and more children's libraries are coming into existence and are proving to be much better attended than adult libraries, with children below school age among the more assiduous readers.

Under the heading of library extension services are included factory libraries, which are particularly well-developed in the socialist countries, but have also mushroomed in all industrial countries during the past twenty or thirty years. Constituted on the initiative either of the trade union or management, they are extremely varied in structure and of very uneven standards. Among the more noteworthy, mention may be made of the library at the Renault factory, Billancourt (France), which is run by the management, and has a stock of over 50,000 volumes, 103,000 loans having been made in 1966 to a working population of 31,200. However, usually the situation is less satisfactory and many of these libraries do not reach more than 10 per cent of the personnel. The difficulties are legion: shortage of funds, suspicion or indifference on the part of employers, material and moral problems on the part of the workers. But doubtless one of the most serious problems concerns the operating personnel. Experience has shown that a works library cannot function well unless the personnel in charge are appointed from among the users and are familiar with every aspect of the worker's life. Thus, in addition to professional competence, the personnel must belong to the environment, which is really only feasible in very large firms. An alternative solution is to have a workers' committee to select the titles to be stocked.

This brings up the question of the training of librarians, the third course of institutional action. At present there are in the world many schools for librarians at all levels and steps are being taken to expand them. However, it is becoming increasingly clear that in addition to the professional librarian proper, a team of auxiliary staff is required who are directly associated with the environment in which they are to promote reading. Today we can see the outline of the librarian-promoter taking shape; he is primarily a social worker, an educator, a technician or an active trade unionist who has had vocational training as a librarian and has been instructed in the dynamic methods that make use of all communication techniques, including audio-visual media. As a result of this mixed training he is able to prevent books, whose qualified spokesman he is, from being regarded as an alien element in the environment in which he works and reading itself from being regarded as a favour 'bestowed'.

How can the reader be brought to the book?

Working with the aim of their immediate application in mind, many inquiries have been concentrated on discovering what people read so as to deduce what they like to read, in short on identifying their tastes. Generally speaking, the results have proved disappointing. In one and the same area, some people are looking for information, others an escape, still others a means of inner enrichment. For example, certain children in a given group will read *Moby Dick* for the factual side of whale fishing, others for the enjoyment they obtain from the exciting adventures it relates, while an adult might relive in it the personal drama of Captain Ahab.

It follows that, in identifying tastes, at least as much importance should be attached to the act of reading as to the text read. Thus, in addition to asking what people read, it is also necessary to ask how and why they read.

The accounts given by readers in this respect are difficult to interpret. When questioned on their motives for reading, a variable but always fairly high proportion of readers reply 'for amusement', 'for relaxation', 'for entertainment', 'to get away from it all'.

It would be unwise to conclude that such readers who, on the whole, seem to be looking for an escape from reality in the world of books constitute a homogeneous group as against those who reply that they read for information, for the sake of improving their general knowledge or for inner enrichment. The concept of escapism in particular is ambiguous. Although this term is considered slightly derogatory today, in the true meaning of the word an escape can mean the door to freedom and consequently a desired and deliberately sought opening of horizons.

It is, it seems, this willingness to explore new paths that enables a first basic distinction to be drawn in the behaviour of readers. For some people reading is simply one of many everyday activities; for others it is a voluntary, considered action. In other words, casual reading and motivated reading may be considered as two separate phenomena. The first brings books into the category of consumer goods. The term 'pastime' is probably the most suitable, indicating an activity undertaken to fill in time, like taking a drink, filling in an easy crossword puzzle or vaguely watching the first programme one finds on television. The same distinction may be made between this and motivated reading as between small talk, the routine exchange of commonplace remarks, and conversation. The former remains, as it were, in parentheses. The university lecturer reading a detective story in the train does not really feel involved by the book he is reading, but he presumably finds relaxation.

Research by direct questioning is practically impossible. The breakdown of ways of reading into two types does not imply the existence of a corresponding typology of readers. Everyone who reads sometimes reads for entertainment and sometimes for a purpose. Often, a reader may move from one approach to the other, even in reading the same book. Everyone must have experienced the quickening of interest aroused when a text suddenly attracts one's attention, engages one's intellect or stirs one's emotion. Then one's way of reading is completely changed so that one is almost obliged to go back to the beginning and reread in the new way.

Casual reading is particularly widespread, of course, in industrially developed countries. Many who say they never read in fact read far more than they think they do, if only their daily newspaper, but with so little attention that it hardly counts as reading. Newspapers and books, too, may be read either casually or with a purpose, but, in the case of newspapers, reading more often tends to alternate between casual and motivated.

Not surprisingly, motivated reading is far more widespread among persons using public libraries, the act of entering the library in itself reflecting a firm desire to have access to books. For example, only 10 per cent of readers using public or school libraries in Chad declare that they read 'to avoid being bored', 'to forget' or 'to send themselves to sleep', whereas 51 per cent of readers in a French town—only one-quarter of whom use libraries—say that they read 'for amusement, for relaxation, to "switch off" or to get away from it all'.

But even here it is hard to tell what is genuine motivation and what is not. Reading 'to forget' or 'for amusement' may be perfectly deliberate acts, undertaken on the basis of a conscious choice, and it is the act of choice that characterizes motivated reading. The reader does not simply read anything that comes to hand, but certain specific books or types of book regardless of their value in the eyes of literary experts. In casual reading, on the contrary, there are few coherent criteria for the selection of reading material, and those few are negative ones: for example, anything that requires an effort or is in too flagrant contradiction with accepted customs is rejected.

On the basis of the method of selecting books, distinction can be drawn among types of motivated reading. Some readers choose a book according to its subject-matter and consequently attach considerable importance to the title, whereas others select books by a given author, or because it is part of a series that interests them. Roughly speaking, to the first category belong mainly those who are in search of facts, whether or not they are presented in didactic form. The second category consists basically of readers of fiction. These, of course, are very general distinctions for, as we have already pointed out, the use made of a book depends at least as much on the reader's predispositions as on the author's intentions. It is just as possible to seek and find factual information in a novel as to allow one's imagination full play in reading a historical, ethnological or even scientific work.

Certain studies now being carried out seem to indicate that these methods of selection correspond to two basic types of behaviour, one of which might be termed objective behaviour and the other participation. In the first case the reader remains autonomous and independent, he keeps at a distance from his reading and consciously directs his manner of reading in the light of his needs. In the second, the reader enters into the world described in the book, identifies himself with the hero, if there is one, and at any rate projects himself into the world he is reading about as into a real world.

Objective behaviour clearly corresponds to reading for information or educational purposes, for such reasons as 'I read to improve my mind, to collect facts, to learn, to broaden my general knowledge, to raise my educational standard, diversify my interests, improve my knowledge of a given subject, etc.' Participating behaviour, which is, properly speaking, literary behaviour, is far more complex and difficult to pin down. The specific reasons given to explain it are usually vague and disappointing: 'I enjoy it; I love it; I'm fascinated by it; I find it interesting, moving, it allows me to dream, to escape from reality, etc.' The manner of participation itself is not always the same: one does not project oneself into a novel in the same way as into a poem.

For present purposes we may keep solely to the broad distinction between those who get something out of their reading and those who throw themselves into it. Age, social position and educational level play a part, though rarely a direct one. The most that can be said is that persons having responsibilities, and who are conscious of the fact, usually engage in objective reading, whereas those who feel weighed down by the burden of existence tend to be the participating type. The individual's mode of reading depends in large measure on his mode of life, on his avowed relationship to the world he lives in.

The foregoing considerations suggest that while the transition from non-reading to reading in general is mainly a matter of institutional organization, the problems involved by the transition from casual reading to motivated reading are as difficult to solve as they are varied.

The first of these problems, and perhaps the most serious, is in regard to reading matter. Encouraging people to read is of little use if books likely to appeal to them are not available. It is not merely a problem of selection. Over half the reading population of the world does not, as we have seen, have access to the reading material it needs to satisfy its basic requirements.

Just as many difficulties exist in the major book-producing countries. Production is often so plentiful that the 'objective' reader is hard put to it to discover which books might provide the intellectual content he is looking for and where he may obtain them. Furthermore, the 'participating' reader often feels that the books available offer him no point of contact, that they recount experiences that are alien to him in a sometimes incomprehensible language.

The only way to overcome the first difficulty is to establish and develop documentation and information services on a national and international scale within everyone's reach. But even this solution will be ineffective unless the flow of information is two-way, book producers being informed of readers' needs and also how these needs are expressed. This implies direct contact on a regular basis, which does exist, but is not, perhaps, adequately developed. It might often be much easier to interest the reader in an adaptation made in his own country rather than in a standard translation in a widely known language or a simple reprint.

The reader cannot be brought to the book except where the book is already there to be read. In a few countries, particularly the socialist countries, an effort is made to promote direct contact between writers and readers. But this must be taken still further.

The reader should first and foremost be in a position to express himself. The traditional literary establishment tended to confine these means of expression to a well-educated minority, which it also provided with the necessary framework and means for exchanging ideas. That was the principal aim of conventional schooling, and this is still the way in which literary opinion is usually formed, through critical articles, conversations and possibly discussions a member of the group might have with writers, artists, academicians, professionals in the book trade—booksellers or librarians—or simply with other readers having the same background. Despite appearances, the cultivated reader is never alone when he reads.

The mass reader is not in the same position; the lack of a framework and above all of a language to express his hopes and reactions tends rather to exclude him from an ivory tower reserved for others. To give him or rather to enable him to set up this framework and develop this language should be one of the prime objectives in the promotion of reading.

An expert writes about reading conditions in certain African countries: 'In Africa, the withdrawal of an individual outside the community is suspect and felt as a threat to the group; so unless the time an individual spends in reading is clearly seen as an investment which will in turn benefit the whole group... the African community will on the whole tend to condemn the act of solitary reading.' This obstacle should not be disregarded, though it can certainly be circumvented, for example, by introducing and extending reading clubs.

The same can be said *mutatis mutandis* of the promotion of reading in all environments. The numerous techniques which have been tested or are being applied to build a social framework around the book, giving the reader awareness of his motivations and an opportunity to express them, can be classified under three broad headings: group techniques, such as the organized reading club or meeting held as an adjunct to another activity; presentation techniques, which may range from a simple exhibition to real spectacles (such as 'book *montages*') making use of the theatre, cinema, slide projections, sound recordings or closed circuit television; and combined promotion techniques, whereby for a limited time a community's entire resources are brought to bear on a subject dealt with in a single book or series of books.

The network of bookshops and libraries provides the obvious focus for such activities. Bookshops are changing in that they are becoming increasingly and more closely associated with community life, but there is no doubt that the new commercial chains are still ill-fitted for this task in developing countries. There, among the prime objectives of specialists in book sales promotion and publicity should be the discovery of how best to make each book outlet (especially in rural areas) a book promotion centre and turn mail-order sales into a genuine group activity in which the reader would have a considerable say. We must discover how to give books a central place in modern social life, not merely as consumer goods but as means of information, communication, expression.

With all the more reason the library—no longer solely a repository but also a distribution centre—should reach out to the public and draw people towards the world of books. This can only be done by being on the spot wherever men gather and inviting them to read—to read and to speak. The library can no longer afford to disregard any of the languages used by the human community: the traditional languages of the spoken word, gesture or picture, or the new languages of the audio-visual media. The library must provide a forum where books can engender a lively contact with all media—dance, the theatre, newspapers, television—that expresses the joys, sufferings and concerns of daily life, be it on sport or politics, technology or love, social or religious problems.

The most important task however falls to the school. It has already been pointed out that the pre-school period is decisive in the formation of reading habits. Here the kindergarten should point the way by bringing books into the child's life, not as educational tools, but as a continuing experience leading to discovery of himself and of the world. At that early age individual self-expression practised in a collective framework is the best form of preliminary reading apprenticeship. During his later apprenticeship in the written language he will acquire mastery over the means of expression, and will thus be better prepared to turn to books to find the answers to needs and desires he feels more clearly and can better express. The teaching of literature should offer a kind of voyage of exploration leading the child to discover for himself what in ancient or modern literature best corresponds to the urge that is dormant within him, and which, if he once becomes aware of it, he will all his life, through reading, endeavour to bring to fruition.

Children's book circles or groups, run by interested parents, provide a valuable stimulus to 'recreational' reading by children.

Reading and related forms of activity

Reading cannot therefore be thought of as an activity that begins and ends with mere contact with the printed text inside the covers. On the contrary, everything indicates that the greater the reader's motivation, the less he limits himself to books. His reading is both preceded and followed by further reading in the broad sense of the word and by other forms of communication.

Here we need mention only very briefly the daily newspaper, the cinema, radio and television, to put them in their chronological order of appearance. These communication media dominate our age but they constitute only a part, and of relatively recent date, of the entire framework within which books exist.

In all of them the proportion of 'casual' consumption is much higher than with books, and this gives rise to several false conclusions. Moreover this proportion varies: one may have the radio playing all day as background but actually listen to it only at certain times, whereas a whole series of deliberate acts must be carried out to go to the cinema at a set time or even to sit down to watch television.

Surveys indicate that on the whole the mass media have not significantly affected reading habits. Statistically, this means that people who read books do not use those media any more or any less than non-readers. Disappointing though it may be, this conclusion at least makes it possible to dispose of a fairly widespread prejudice in intellectual circles according to which the mass media present a serious threat to books. It even seems, though the difference is often too slight to be observed, that the introduction of television in a country tends rather to promote reading. This has certainly been the case in the developed countries.

Going beyond simple statistical observation one is led to formulate some hypotheses, those relating to newspapers being doubtless the most readily verifiable. A great deal of what we have said about the reading of books applies to a certain type of newspaper reading. The relationship is all the closer in that nowadays the newspaper, relieved by audio-visual media of the necessity for up-to-the-minute reporting, tends to comment on the event, to draw it out, to place it in a larger context or, conversely, translate it into the language of everyday local events.

That is why newspaper reading is always an excellent index of reading pure and simple. Relations between books and the periodical press vary greatly from one country to another, the variations being greater in countries with long-established literary traditions. In the case of developing countries it does seem possible to assert that there is a close and consistent correlation between progress in the dissemination of books and of newspapers. Books should thus be thought of as forming part of a printed communication network comparable in size, on a world scale, to the audio-visual communication network. Any reading policy must take this fact into account; the press and publishers are united in their aim to satisfy the need to know, to understand, to join together and link up knowledge, to clarify ideas, to define opinions, which are among the strongest motivations for reading.

There are others. When habitual readers are asked whether, after seeing a film they liked, they want to read the book on which it was based or conversely, whether after reading a book they enjoyed they would go to the film version, a fairly large proportion of readers—often more than half—answer both questions in the affirmative. Furthermore it seems that those who make these replies are usually characterized by 'participating' behaviour as far as their reading habits are concerned. This indicates that reading of the 'participating' type is a manifestation, at the level of written communication. To read, for this type of reader, is to live through an intellectual or emotional adventure which is an integral part of his life. The bond with an author, a hero or a theme is a personal bond, which indeed explains why he tends to choose books by author or series: he wishes to re-enter a familiar universe to which he belongs at least in imagination. The cinema plunges him right into it, but even more so does a broadcast radio adaptation; its intimate quality and the free play it allows the imagination permits him to build up to or draw out an experience of which reading, by making him lord of his inner creation, forms the culminating point.

Television, a multiform communication technique, still not fully understood and imperfectly mastered, has an impact which at one and the same time resembles that of the press, the cinema and the radio, to which it adds its own dimension by bringing out the immediacy of the event. Television also devours fiction: it consumes literary material at such a pace that it leaves no time for that individual reflection which is part and parcel of reading. Nor indeed, one might suspect—at least in the fictional field—for writing.

For that reason its effects are contradictory. On the one hand it provokes an acute need for reading matter and, to the extent that this need is met, it is one of the best allies of the book and the newspaper. On the other, in so far as the system for the production and distribution of reading material cannot keep up with its infernal pace, television is reduced to its own means and shuts itself up in a closed circuit where stereotypes take the place of reality, thus posing a dangerous threat to the freedom of the viewer. His liberty to 'turn off' is only a negative answer to this problem.

The danger cannot be averted except by over-all co-ordination and harmonization of the communication media. Even at the publisher's level the book now has to be thought of and conceived in relation to what are too often termed marginal considerations: repercussions in the press and radio, film or televised versions. It should be viewed, not purely as a literary event, but in its over-all context. This does not mean that every book is destined to create a stir, but it is reasonable to expect of it that it will fit into a comprehensive plan and that, when it comes to distribution, it will not have to wage solitary battle amid a public that a thousand distractions deter from reading.

One might ask 'Why read?' There is no obvious answer. The fact is simply that in the present state of affairs audio-visual communication media cannot do without written (printed) backing. All the ingenuity of modern technology cannot now, any more than it could before, prevent spoken words and images from fading, whereas the written word endures. In our changing civilization the written word may not endure as long as it did, but still long enough to vest the reader with the power of historical perspective, semantic decision, reinterpretation and retrospective criticism: in a word—the means to his liberty.

CHAPTER 7

Conclusions

The continued existence of book hunger in many parts of the world has stimulated increasing efforts to provide the intellectual nourishment that is sought. In the first instance, governments have taken action not only within developing countries, but also in the advanced publishing countries where the educational contribution of books has been recognized in aid programmes. The book professions themselves have also moved to promote solutions to this paradox of book hunger in the midst of plenty.

With the approach of International Book Year 1972, the International Publishers' Association conceived the idea of a 'Charter for the Book' which would set out in clear terms the unique position occupied by books in education, in the life of the spirit and in the exercise of freedom and international understanding. The task was taken up by a Support Committee for International Book Year, set up by the professions. On 22 October 1971, the publishers, along with representatives of authors, librarians, documentalists and booksellers, approved at Brusseis the text of the charter, which is reproduced as an appendix to this book. While representing professions, it is important to note the committee also was drawn from the various regions of the globe. The Charter of the Book consists of ten articles, designed to cover the major factors affecting books. It provides in miniature the picture painted in the previous pages, touching as it does the same themes.

'Everyone has the right to read' is the opening phrase of Article I of the charter, which thus reflects the basic concepts in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The declaration proclaims that all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and in rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood. Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in the declaration, without distinction of race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or any other kind of status. The rights guaranteed by the declaration include freedom of thought, conscience and religion, and freedom of opinion and expression, the latter including freedom to seek and transmit information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.

Thus the right to write, the right to publish and the right to read are among the inalienable rights of man. It is, however, one thing to have rights, and another to exercise them.

Economic and social conditions must be such as to render the exercise of these rights possible. The fact that a country's publishing industry is not fully developed or that the educational system is unable to give all its nationals a mastery of their language is a barrier—but not an insurmountable one—to their application.

Close to half the men, women and children in the world today cannot exercise their right to read, simply because they have not learnt to read. While the powerful audio-visual media can deliver whole populations from their isolation, broaden their horizons and accelerate their education, reading places the tool of progress in their hands. Its flexibility of use, the demands it makes on the reader's initiative and the freedom it leaves him make it the most effective instrument for acquiring, organizing and applying information.

These same qualities make it an essential component of leisure-time activities. Rest is also one of the rights of man—and rest offers favourable conditions for reading—and reading is one of the most rewarding ways of spending leisure time.

The right to read is, of course, indissolubly linked with the content of books and this has been recognized by the book professions in their charter. Article I states: 'The producers and distributors of books, for their part, have the obligation to ensure that the ideas and information thus conveyed continue to meet the changing needs of the reader and of society as a whole.'

'*Books are essential to education*'

Turning from the right to read, the charter places next the role of books in education. This naturally brings into question the relationship of books to other teaching devices, a matter of concern to developing and developed countries alike. In the more advanced publishing nations, increasing experiments are being made with other audio-visual media, such as television, radio, films, slides, recordings and teaching machines. Yet the textbook component remains an essential element in the educational process. When the newer audio-visual devices are used extensively, books do not disappear. Essentially what happens in these cases is that printed matter becomes more sophisticated and becomes an integral part of a new complex of educational materials.

The developing countries, too, have experimented freely with these new techniques, particularly since, starting fresh, they do not have to consider protecting existing industries and accumulated investments in textbooks. Economic strictures, however, tend to bring them back overwhelmingly to the use of printed matter, which not only is cheaper to produce and utilize in education, but which also remains an education essential. Audio-visual materials complement rather than replace printed materials.

The written word alone permits the student to control completely the pace of his learning. It allows him or her to restructure the message received at will and fit it into a system of thinking.

All the regional meetings on book development organized by Unesco have agreed that priority must be given to educational books, particularly those used in first-level education. There is no sense in educational planning, the experts maintained, if pupils do not have the necessary textbooks. Furthermore, they have argued, free textbooks are the inevitable corollary of compulsory education.

As a result not only of demographic factors but also of the progress made in all countries in generalizing education, the audience for textbooks is growing. Educational objectives, as defined by the regional conferences of Asian, African and Latin

American ministers of education, serve as a yardstick for gauging the extent of the effort to be made. By 1980, at the end of the Second Development Decade, first-level textbook needs will be almost three times what they were in 1960, at the start of the First Development Decade. For the developing countries of Asia, Africa, the Arab States and Latin America, this means that massive new efforts will have to be made, since even now these countries are succeeding in meeting educational needs only through imports. While such imports will certainly not shrink in the coming decade, these nations will have to produce many more of the textbooks needed if their educational budgets are not to become even more unbalanced than today.

The urgent need for local production of textbooks is one of the important problems brought up repeatedly at the Unesco meetings on book development. The Organization is helping to find answers by sending out to many countries experts to set up educational presses and to assist in the planning and writing of textbooks. Through these efforts, along with those of other of Unesco's Member States, a gradual recognition has developed of the importance of planning textbook production as part of regular national educational programmes. Such planning should ensure the availability of adequate local resources.

At the same time, there has been mounting awareness that the link between writers, publishers and education ministries, on the one hand, and economic planners on the other, must be strengthened. The need for such a mutual effort has also been recognized by international financing organizations, including the United Nations Development Programme and the World Bank group.

While the connexion between education and economic and social progress no longer has to be proved, it is important that the controllers of national purse-strings become aware that education consists of more than simply classrooms and teachers. Textbooks and other printed matter, along with the newer educational materials, also must be budgeted. The climate of educational change makes ever more urgent revised and better textbooks, tailored to the new situations, and in ever-increasing quantities. To the extent that it is possible, these should be locally written and produced so as to derive strength from national particularities and to reinforce the kind of national understanding without which international comprehension is not really possible.

'Society has a special obligation to . . . authors . . .'

Even before the first word was fixed on paper or clay, the profession of authorship existed. The bard and the minstrel were authors and, more often than not, translators too. Taking an oral tradition and giving it new form, adding improvisations and flourishes, adapting the story to the audience, were all feats of authorship. Even the most backward societies recognized the special role of the creative story-teller, who usually was exempt from the restraints and hostility that greeted the stranger. The wandering poet was welcomed warmly wherever he went.

In some ways, the life of the author in early times is to be envied when it is compared with that reserved for struggling writers in our day. He was not dependent on any machinery other than his own voice; he had no publisher, editor, distributor with whom to contend. His audience, of course, was inevitably limited by his own capacity. Today, it is only a minority of those who write who can devote their lives entirely to the one creative act. Successful men or women of letters exist, but those who derive their livelihood completely from writing are a rarity in our time, not excluding the countries with planned economies. The creative urge, none the less, is much more powerful than economic incentives. Young people—and old, too—write because there is something in them which they feel they must share with the world. Poets survive even in societies that reject the idea of poetry.

Authors write better and more when their efforts are rewarded, however, either materially or with the respect and admiration of their fellow-citizens. The legend of the poet in his garret writing for posterity is, in fact, one of the great fictions created by authors. Here lies one of the dilemmas of the author today, and with him, of all the book community.

There are not enough good authors in the world. There never were, but the lack is more apparent today as more and more books are published and more and more people read. It is particularly apparent in the developing countries of Asia, Africa, Latin America and the Arab States, which suffer from a shortage of material to publish.

Translation would seem the most obvious—or at least the most immediate—solution, and the expert meetings that Unesco has convened agreed that a far larger quantity of translations was needed, particularly as regards books for schools, for university and out-of-school education. Yet it is precisely the developing countries which are least able to benefit, under present conditions, from this medium of exchange. They lack translators and also adequate access to the foreign currency to obtain translation rights.

Unesco has endeavoured to assist translators not only through training, but also by helping them to win wider audiences. The Organization thus encourages the translation of literary works representative of the genius of various cultures. These translations, chiefly from languages little spoken outside their national boundaries into English and French but occasionally into other languages, now add up to some 300 volumes, with more than a hundred others in preparation. Thanks to them, the oral literature of Africa and works in Burmese, Georgian, Pali, Romanian, Sanskrit and Urdu, to name but a few, are now available outside their language zones. Unesco also publishes regularly a list of all translations made, as a guide to bibliographers and publishers. The *Index Translationum*, now in its twenty-second annual edition, lists 38,000 translations in sixty-five countries.

Even under ideal conditions, though, translation would not be enough. Although science textbooks, for instance, can be prepared on a very broad basis, which would be valid for many countries, these internationally acceptable works are the exception rather than the rule. Immediate examples come to mind.

When a child in a tropical climate finds his book speaking of snow, something incomprehensible has been added to the fresh mystery of reading. It is equally difficult for a youngster from a purely agricultural environment to understand the primer which speaks of father going to the office. There are no offices in his environment.

These are but a few of the reasons why it is often better to adapt material written in one country before it is used in another.

Adaptation has the additional advantage in that it trains authors in the countries where the adaptation is being made.

Translation and adaptation can never, however, replace over the long run authentic and original creation, particularly in so far as educational material is concerned. A far different situation exists in works of the mind. The novel or the children's book of imagination is far less bound to the day-to-day experiences of the school environment. The very quality of strangeness adds to their value, bringing with it a knowledge of how other people act and think.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights states: 'Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits.' It adds: 'Everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author.'

Two basic concepts are involved here: the right to create and the right to derive the benefits from creative activity. While they are interlocking rights, they merit separate examination.

The first concept deals with the right to access to creative works, and also with the right to produce such works. Few societies have granted absolute freedom to create. The belief that the author has a responsibility to the society that has made it possible for him to create is widespread. And yet many of the most important works of the mind, books that have changed the course of history, were written against the desire of existing moral and political régimes.

The second concept concerns the right of the author to the moral and material benefits of his creation. With regard to the moral benefits, the author wishes to be recognized as the creator of the work in question. Often, nothing more is involved here than the right to have his name attached to his book. Also implied, however, is recognition of the status of the author, as a professional entitled to the same rights and prerogatives as other professionals.

The material benefits include the right to compensation for his labours. In a planned economy, this may mean compensation from the State for a meritorious job. It also may involve copyright.

Copyright gives the author the exclusive right to authorize the use of his or her work in any way. It thus confers on the work of the mind the status of property that can be bought or hired. It was invented for two reasons: so that the author could control the uses made of his work and therefore be able to demand a reward for such use; and so that society should be enabled to have access to the work.

One person whom the author may license to exercise his right is the publisher. This is an essential element in the production of books, since the publisher needs a guarantee that a competitor will not be able to publish the same work at the same time.

As books circulated more and more frequently across national boundaries, national copyright gave rise to international copyright. Protection at home was no longer sufficient. The author wished to be assured of his rights, no matter where his works were published.

Since developing countries depend so heavily on imported manuscripts—in part because the climate for creation is lacking at home—they have been casting a critical eye at the rules of international copyright which were drawn up by the advanced publishing countries. They complained that the rules made it extremely difficult for them to obtain the rights of reproduction, translation and adaptation which they needed to feed their infant publishing industries.

One of the first steps to meet their discontent was taken in 1952 when Unesco helped sponsor a new international copyright convention, the Universal Copyright Convention. This still did not meet the objections of the developing countries. They were particularly concerned because there was no avenue of communication between the two existing conventions. If they belonged to the Berne Convention for the Protection of Intellectual Property, they could not withdraw from it to take advantage of the slightly more liberal provisions of the UCC.

This situation resulted in a series of international meetings, culminating in July 1971 in two diplomatic conferences which rewrote the controversial portions of both conventions. As is usually the case in any diplomatic endeavour of this kind, there were no victors and no defeated. The revised conventions represent compromises, carefully worked out, with each concession balanced by a corresponding advantage. Without repeating the technical details involved (see Chapter 5 above), it is sufficient to say that, to a very considerable measure, the requirements of the developing countries were taken into consideration and international copyright should no longer represent a major obstacle to the development of domestic publishing.

Along the way to this revision, the developing and the developed countries decided that a mechanism was necessary to assist in the transfer of rights. Too often, said publishers in developing countries, their requests for rights fell on deaf ears. The mechanism that evolved was the Unesco International Copyright Information Centre, set up in January 1971. Backed by national copyright information centres, the Unesco body is designed to make easier the transfer of rights to developing countries of the most vitally needed books, particularly educational books and scientific and technical literature.

Copyright revision and copyright centres in the final analysis serve the same purpose. Their objective is to help instil a rule of law in a field that was threatened with anarchy.

'A sound publishing industry is essential to national development' While there are enormous differences in book development from region to region, and even more so between individual countries within each region, a certain logic of logistics is apparent everywhere. For the developing countries, it is marked generally by shortages in both production and distribution of books. Over a period of years, Unesco has organized regional meetings on book development: Asia, 1966; Africa, 1968; Latin America, 1969; and the Arab States in 1972. At each, experts have examined the present situation of books and have then drawn up regional targets for improvement, based upon their analysis. It is a picture filled with dark spots: of inadequate numbers of writers and translators, of major production problems, weak distribution networks, the plague of illiteracy and non-reading, and the inability of books to serve fully education and economic and moral progress. Yet it would be a mistake to over-emphasize the problems to the exclusion of the hopeful signs that are apparent.

The world of books in the developing countries is a world of movement. In this respect, it repeats in microcosm the challenges, shortfalls and achievements of development generally. While much remains to be done, the progress already made has been impressive. Since the first step toward the solution of problems is their identification and quantification, the developing regions have begun, thanks in part to the Unesco-sponsored meetings, to do this and have equally begun to develop coherent systems of responses to their particular situations.

Certain basic similarities are evident in each of the developing regions. The underlying premise to be noted alike in the Tokyo, Accra and Bogotá meeting reports is the need for careful planning coupled with national efforts to take into consideration the diverse requirements of publishers, booksellers, librarians and educators. In both Asia and Africa, the experts felt that the prime requisite for co-operation among the book professions would be the establishment of national book-development councils. In Latin America, on the other hand, there was a feeling that existing structures in the book profession might better be reinforced through the creation of a regional book-development centre. This approach reflected the widespread interest in Latin America in activities that could promote regional integration.

The other two regions also shared the conviction that national endeavours should be supplemented by some sort of regional institution, like a book-development centre. All of them called also for the co-operation and support of existing, regional bodies, such as the United Nations economic commissions, to further the recognition that book development was in fact a question of economic development and should therefore be fully integrated into economic planning.

The need for training on a managerial as well as a production level was also recognized generally and Unesco's announced intention to institute training courses in each of the regions was universally welcomed. Considerable attention was paid to textbook supplies and their effect on educational planning. Parallel to this was the question of providing books for the newly literate in order to prevent the lapse into illiteracy. Library development was also stressed in this regard. Finally, the experts looked to Unesco to help them with planning and to act as their spokesman in efforts to obtain the necessary financing of book industries. They urged the

Organization to bring their reports to the attention of international and regional financial institutions, to promote further research into problems and to provide guidance on the perennial problems involved in copyright and translation.

While there were many similarities, there are certain divergences among the conclusions of the meetings, deriving from the differing states of advancement of the book profession and from particularities in culture. In Asia, there was strong preoccupation with the protection of the region's cultural heritage and in Africa with the question of production in national languages.

None of this, however, gives a picture of the flavour of the meetings. The experts participating represented a cross-section of the book work in their regions. In most cases, they were publishers, but often librarians and educators were also included. For many of them, it was the first occasion they had had to get together with experts from outside their own countries. The results were exciting in the meetings themselves and outside.

What is more, the discussions involved not only experts from the region in question, but representative bookmen from many parts of the world. At each of the meetings, observers attended from the more advanced publishing countries, making their experience available.

Participants were encouraged at learning that there is not that much disparity between many of the problems of the developing regions and those of the advanced publishing countries. They also drew satisfaction out of the evident willingness of the developed countries to assist with the overwhelming desire manifested by developing country experts to build publishing and distribution facilities to meet rising needs. The major book exporters recognized that book development serves to widen readership and that national production increases over-all consumption and thus the size of their markets.

Generally, there has been increasing recognition of the multidisciplinary effort that is necessary for the establishment and growth of national book industries. Too often, as had been the case in Unesco itself, responsibility for book programmes had been dispersed. The book-development meetings created an awareness of the need for concerted national approaches as well as for regional and international action.

Out of that recognition came concrete national moves to strengthen the organization of domestic book industries. For example, national book-development councils were created to bring together various elements of the book world, including authors, publishers, distributors and librarians so that they could examine their situation jointly and produce recommendations for action in each country.

The actual form and statutes of book-development councils differ from country to country. There are nevertheless certain elements that are common to most of them. For example, the statement of objectives of the Malaysian National Book Development Council is fairly typical:

1. To bring together the different groups concerned in the production and distribution of reading materials with a view to ensuring efficiency and effective co-operation in the provision and use of reading materials.
2. To encourage the formation of professional associations relating to reading materials where these do not exist and the strengthening of such associations where they already exist.
3. To encourage the maintenance of high professional and technical standards in book production and distribution in the country.
4. To encourage and promote the provision of adequate library services in the country.
5. To create by suitable means public consciousness in books and encourage discriminating reading habits among all sections of the population.
6. To organize and provide training facilities in all matters relating to reading materials.
7. To foster and co-ordinate research and investigation into problems in the field of reading materials.
8. To do whatever is possible towards the attainment of the above and any other objectives that will promote the activities of the Council.

Another element common to most national book-development councils is the involvement of government officials in their creation and functioning. This is a *sine qua non* to successful operations in developing countries. Governments are not only among the principal customers of the book trade, through their purchase of textbooks, but also are involved in the entire range of book activities, from government printing offices to distribution networks, including State-financed libraries. The provision of foreign currency for the purchase of paper, printing materials and books themselves also requires government authorization in many cases. Finally, incentives to authors and translators are frequently within the domain of government authorities.

Since the book industries in many developing countries are poorly financed, there is also need for Government assistance in operations of book-development councils. The former head of the Book Development Council of the United Kingdom, Philip Harris, recommended in a report to Unesco that governments should guarantee a grant sufficient to finance a small secretariat. He added that a council should 'likewise seek to be used as the paid agent of the Ministry of Economic Planning in preparing surveys of national book needs and statements of requirements from aid-giving countries. It might also be used as the agent of the Ministry of Education, e.g. in promoting certain aspects of further education. It might seek modest subscriptions to its funds from the Ministries and Associations represented on its Council'. In that way, the council could eventually become self-supporting.

Mr Harris foresaw that the prime activity of a Book Development Council would be to co-ordinate the book activities of appropriate ministries and associations and 'to serve as a pressure group to ensure that both the private and public sectors act responsibly and imaginatively in all book matters'. This has, in fact, been the experience of a number of the national book-development councils that have already been set up.

It is a tribute to the wisdom of the experts at the regional book development meetings in recommending the establishment of such councils that well after the initial stimulus of the meetings more and more continued to be set up in developing countries. Under the impetus for book development provided by International Book Year, some nine additional member governments announced their intention to establish councils during 1972. Others wrote into their national programmes of action pledges to strengthen existing councils.

'*Book manufacturing facilities are necessary to the development of publishing*'

The chain of operations which leads from the author to the reader contains two links that often fail to receive full recognition. Those essential elements are the printers and designers of books, who have been among the keys to the spread of the 'book revolution'.

It was new printing techniques that made possible the low-cost and high-print-run publications that have enabled paperbacks to bring the book within reach of the average citizen.

Along with the new technology came a growing realization of the integral role of the book designer, not only an illustrator but one who conceived of layout, type selection and format as a coherent whole. The position of the book designer is perhaps most strikingly illustrated in children's books, where the marriage of design and text is so important. Since the habit of reading is acquired early, the first experience of a child with a book can be determining.

Illustrations are particularly important. Many of the best children's books, therefore, are the product of the collaboration of an artist and a writer. In the best of situations, the drawings will not only be plentiful but multi-coloured. And the type used in printing will have been selected with both the subject-matter, the child's attitudes and the illustrations in mind.

This is a lesson that Unesco experts have brought to the many training courses organized by regional centres for book development at which special emphasis has been placed on the role of the designer and practical demonstrations have been provided. While highly illustrated books are more expensive to produce, one result of Unesco's regional meetings has been cross-national efforts to publish such books jointly and thus reduce the per unit cost. For example, one of Japan's contributions to International Book Year was the production of children's books in which one country would make available to the others of the Asian region common illustrations. This would allow large quantities of these designs to be printed in the different languages of the region. The languages differ; the illustrations are the same.

Perhaps because of the oft-ignored role of printers and designers, governments sometimes slight their requirements. In the developing countries, this can have critical results. Printing and binding equipment usually has to be imported. So too do type faces and inks.

The special lettering frequently required for the transcription of oral languages and the design of print for non-Latin alphabets can be done on the spot if the artistic talents exist. The same is true for books for the handicapped. The actual production of the metal, film lettering or embossing calls, however, for sophisticated machinery that more often than not is beyond the capacity of the countries in question. This is a message that printers and designers attempt to bring to the economic planners who determine allocations of scarce foreign currency.

Aside from these problems, a formidable obstacle to the expansion of local book production is constituted by shortages of printing paper. In Africa and Asia, *per capita* consumption of printing and writing paper in 1967 was nineteen to forty-eight times lower than in Europe and North America. In Latin America, it was from seven to eighteen times lower.

This extreme shortage results primarily from inadequate local production; it is difficult to remedy through imports because of the difficulty experienced by the developing countries in allocating scarce currency. On the other hand, paper produced locally may be of lower quality than imported stocks. With rare exceptions, this situation was singled out by the meetings of experts as one of the major obstacles to book development in their countries.

There are considerable forest resources in some of the most deprived regions but it is difficult to exploit such resources for the manufacture of paper because the wood may not be suitable to be turned into paper. FAO has been working on this problem for a number of years and the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations, in proclaiming its support for International Book Year's objectives, specifically called on FAO to intensify its efforts in this regard.

‘*Booksellers provide a fundamental service as a link between publishers and the reading public*’

While there is general agreement on the value of booksellers as a necessary means of getting books into the hands of the reading public, there is considerably less unanimity on measures to aid them. Such is the key role they occupy, however, that a number of concrete steps are more and more finding favour to enable booksellers to function effectively.

Among these measures are special book post rates. A large and increasing share of the book market is conducted through the mail. Any savings that can be effected through reduced postal charges for the use of the mails therefore can be passed along to the consumers, bringing down the cost of books and enabling an ever-larger public to partake of the benefits and pleasures of reading. The intervention of UPU, which fixes international rates, can be of major help here and Unesco has been represented at UPU congresses to argue the merits of such rates.

Similar reductions have been advocated for freight rates, both nationally and internationally. This is particularly important for bulk shipments, such as those for school books, but also affects most of the orders placed by booksellers. On the international scene, Unesco has endeavoured to assist in lowering shipping charges for books, particularly with the International Air Transport Association (IATA). With the coming into service of jumbo jets and the consequent increase in transport space, it has been argued that incentive rates for air shipment of books not only would serve the interest of readers and educators, but would also prove to be financially beneficial to the airlines themselves.

In some countries, incentives have been offered booksellers by exempting their wares from certain taxes, placing food for the mind in the same category as other types of essential nourishment.

One problem booksellers face continuously is the lapse of time between the placing of an order for books and the receipt of cash for sales. A bookseller must maintain stocks to meet the potential needs of his customers. Unlike the ordinary business, the turnover in books is frequently slow. In consequence, the bookseller needs payment facilities so that he can continue to provide the kind of service book readers expect.

Book festivals and fairs can aid the distributor by creating awareness of public needs and of the resources available to satisfy them. In some countries, booksellers set up stands each year at busy intersections, bringing books to the public rather than waiting for readers to enter their shops. Newspaper articles and criticism, as well as programmes on books broadcast by radio and televison, also help book distributors.

CONCLUSIONS

'Libraries are national resources...'

Without doubt, one of the most promising methods for resolving the problem of bringing books to all potential readers is the library. Here, however, a basic distinction must be made between two fundamental purposes of libraries. On the one hand, a library is a preserver of knowledge, a place to which people come to examine and study. On the other, the library may lend books to readers, who can take the volumes they choose to read and study at their leisure in the place of their choice.

The public library can be the point of initial contact between a child and the world of books, particularly for those whose parents cannot afford to buy books. In countries where public libraries are well-developed and where children's sections abound, publishers can count on disposing of as much as 80 per cent of a good children's book to the library. The publisher thus is assured of a market whose limits he can determine in advance. Similarly, the school library, supplementing scarce textbooks, can become another place of discovery, not only for the pupil but also for his parents.

It is for these reasons that the improvement of school and public libraries has been a prime objective of Unesco from its beginnings. The Organization has provided experts and fellowships and organized seminars and training courses. Since 1951, when Unesco cooperated with the Government of India in founding a model library at Delhi, similar pilot libraries have been established in Africa and Latin America. These libraries have often developed their activities to include branch libraries and bookmobile services and have contributed to library development throughout the regions in which they are located. To give practical guidance, Unesco issues a series of library manuals, produces and distributes films and filmstrips on the subject, and provides information services to Member States for the development of their library and archive services.

Libraries are, of course, more than the concern of international organizations, or even of national governments. Involving as they do service to the public, it is on the public that, in final analysis, they depend for recognition and for the resources that can enable them to accomplish their tasks more effectively.

'Documentation serves books by preserving and making available essential background material'

Documentation covers a much broader field than its relationship to books, the subject with which we are here concerned. It is, nevertheless, basic to the conception and creation of books, particularly of scientific, technical and other specialized works. Moreover, the growth of photocopying and other reproduction techniques have raised thorny problems for the book industry, especially in regard to copyright.

With increasing specialization in the sciences, for example, researchers are interested frequently in one particular aspect of a question and seek abstracts of published materials, individual chapters of books or articles in magazines. Abstracting poses no problems to the book industry, but reprography does. It may affect the sales of books and, even more, of journals.

With microfilms and other technical innovations, the documentalist is in the forefront of experiments with the new forms that books may take. The quantum jump in scientific information in the last few years makes it essential that new forms of storing and transmitting knowledge be devised. Inevitably, these will have repercussions on the traditional book, with pages bound between a cover. Already, documentalists have prepared 'books' containing printed introductions and microfiches in pockets built into the covers.

The technical devices also assist in the creation of the books of today. As the network of information storage and retrieval spreads, the author is no longer an isolated individual but may call upon the resources of other thinkers that are contained in documentation centres in all parts of the world. The importance of this internationalization of source material cannot be overemphasized, particularly for writers in developing countries who might otherwise be deprived of access to scientific and technical material already in existence outside their national boundaries.

'The free flow of books between countries is an essential supplement to national supplies...'

The cornerstone of efforts for the freest possible distribution of books is the Agreement on the Importation of Educational, Scientific and Cultural Materials, adopted by Unesco's General Conference at Florence in 1950. Some sixty-eight countries are at present parties to the agreement, which grants duty-free entry to books and calls on governments to grant as far as possible licences and foreign exchange for books. It also provides that internal taxes should be kept at the same level as for domestic products and that import procedures should be simplified. The Florence agreement provides similar advantages to other categories of educational, scientific and cultural materials, but books, publications and documents are singled out for particular attention.

During the years since adoption of the agreement, Unesco has periodically convened intergovernmental conferences to review its application. At Geneva in 1967, the governmental experts recommended the most liberal interpretation of the provisions of the agreement so far as books were concerned. They suggested that, in particular, governments should exempt books as far as possible from taxes and other internal charges and from quantitative restrictions. Furthermore, they suggested customs clearance facilities for books. Finally, the experts urged that more countries should adhere to the agreement.

As part of its programme for the free flow of books, Unesco has carried out studies of the relevant tariff and trade regulations, starting with the publication in 1951 of *Trade Barriers to Knowledge*. One of the most recent of these studies, *Taxes on Knowledge*, prepared by the Secretariat of GATT (General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade), suggested that the time had come for governments to consider eliminating import restrictions not only on books, but also on the raw materials that go into their manufacture.

'*Books serve international understanding and peaceful co-operation*'

The final article of the charter deals with the role of books in international understanding. The text of the article can serve better than any commentary as a conclusion to this study.

> Books serve international understanding and peaceful co-operation.
> 'Since wars begin in the minds of men,' the Unesco Constitution states, 'it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be

constructed.' Books constitute one of the major defences of peace because of their enormous influence in creating an intellectual climate of friendship and mutual understanding. All those concerned have an obligation to ensure that the content of books promotes individual fulfilment, social and economic progress, international understanding and peace.

Charter of the book

Preamble

Convinced that books remain essential tools for preserving and diffusing the world's storehouse of knowledge;

Believing that the role of books can be reinforced by the adoption of policies designed to encourage the widest possible use of the printed word;

Recalling that the Constitution of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization calls for the promotion of 'the free flow of ideas by word and image' as well as 'international co-operation calculated to give the people of all countries access to the printed and published materials produced by any of them';

Recalling further that the General Conference of Unesco has affirmed that books 'perform a fundamental function in the realization of Unesco's objectives, namely peace, development, the promotion of human rights and the campaign against racialism and colonialism';

Considering that the General Conference of Unesco has proclaimed 1972 International Book Year, with the theme 'Books for All'; the International Community of Booksellers' Associations, the International Confederation of Societies of Authors and Composers, the International Federation for Documentation, the International Federation of Library Associations, the International Federation of Translators, International PEN and the International Publishers' Association

Adopt unanimously this Charter of the Book, and call upon all concerned to give effect to the principles here enunciated.

CHARTER OF THE BOOK

Article I

Everyone has the right to read
Society has an obligation to ensure that everyone has an opportunity to enjoy the benefit of reading. Since vast portions of the world's population are deprived of access to books by inability to read, governments have the responsibility of helping to obliterate the scourge of illiteracy. They should encourage provision of the printed materials needed to build and maintain the skill of reading. Bilateral and multilateral assistance should be made available, as required, to the book professions. The producers and distributors of books, for their part, have the obligation to ensure that the ideas and information thus conveyed continue to meet the changing needs of the reader and of society as a whole.

Article II

Books are essential to education
In an era of revolutionary changes in education and far-reaching programmes for expanded school enrolment, planning is required to ensure an adequate textbook component for the development of educational systems. The quality and content of educational books need constant improvement in all countries of the world. Regional production can assist national publishers in meeting requirements for textbooks as well as for general educational reading materials which are particularly needed in school libraries and literacy programmes.

Article III

Society has a special obligation to establish the conditions in which authors can exercise their creative role
The Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that 'everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author'. This protection should be also extended to translators, whose work opens the horizon of a book beyond linguistic frontiers, thus providing an essential link between authors and a wider public. Since all countries have the right to express their cultural individuality, preserving the diversity essential to civilization, they should encourage authors in their creative role, and should provide, through translation, wider access to the

riches contained in the literature of other languages, including those of limited diffusion.

Article IV

A sound publishing industry is essential to national development
In a world in which there are sharp disparities in book production, with many countries lacking adequate reading materials, it is necessary to plan for the development of national publishing. This requires national initiative and, where necessary, international co-operation to help create the infrastructure needed. The development of publishing industries also entails integration with education and economic and social planning; the participation of professional organizations, extending in so far as possible across the entire book community through institutions such as national book development councils; and long-term, low-interest financing on a national, bilateral or multilateral basis.

Article V

Book manufacturing facilities are necessary to the development of publishing
In their economic policies, governments should ensure that necessary supplies and equipment are available for the development of an infrastructure for book manufacture, including paper, printing and binding machinery. The maximum use of national resources, together with eased importation of these supplies and equipment, will promote the production of inexpensive and attractive reading materials. Urgent attention should also be given to the development of transcriptions of oral languages. Those concerned with the manufacture of books should maintain the highest practicable standards of production and design. Particular efforts should be made for the manufacture of books for the handicapped.

Article VI

Booksellers provide a fundamental service as a link between publishers and the reading public
In the forefront of efforts to promote the reading habit, booksellers have both cultural and educational responsibilities. They play a vital role in

ensuring that an adequate and well-chosen range of books reaches the reading public. Special book post and air freight rates, payment facilities and other financial incentives aid them in carrying out this function.

Article VII

Libraries are national resources for the transfer of information and knowledge, for the enjoyment of wisdom and beauty

Libraries occupy a central position in the distribution of books. They are often the most effective means of getting printed matter to the reader. As a public service, they promote reading which, in turn, advances individual well-being, lifelong education and economic and social progress. Library services should correspond to each nation's potentialities and needs. Not only in cities, but especially in the vast rural areas which frequently lack book supplies, each school and each community should possess at least one library with qualified staff and an adequate book budget. Libraries are also essential for higher education and scholarly requirements. The development of national library networks will enable readers everywhere to have access to book resources.

Article VIII

Documentation serves books by preserving and making available essential background material

Scientific, technical and other specialized books require adequate documentation services. Accordingly, such services should be developed, with the assistance of governments and all elements of the book community. In order that maximum information materials may be available at all times, measures should be taken to encourage the freest possible circulation across frontiers of these essential tools.

Article IX

The free flow of books between countries is an essential supplement to national supplies and promotes international understanding

To enable all to share in the world's creativity, the unhampered flow of books is vital. Obstacles such as tariffs and taxes can be eliminated through widespread application of Unesco Agreements and other international recommendations and treaties. Licences and foreign currency for the purchase of books and the raw materials for book-making should be accorded generally, and internal taxes and other restraints on trade in books reduced to a minimum.

Article X

Books serve international understanding and peaceful co-operation
'Since wars begin in the minds of men,' the Unesco Constitution states, 'it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed.' Books constitute one of the major defences of peace because of their enormous influence in creating an intellectual climate of friendship and mutual understanding. All those concerned have an obligation to ensure that the content of books promotes individual fulfilment, social and economic progress, international understanding and peace.